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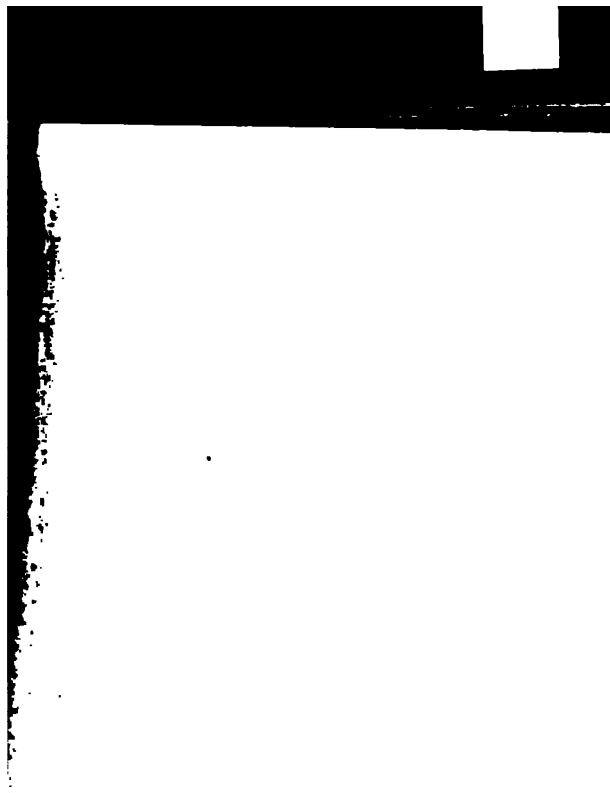




GIFT
Dr. Rufus Lee Rigdon

AMERICAN BOOK CONCERN, NEW YORK

R. L. RIDGON, M. D.,
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THE PRINCIPLES
OF
BACTERIOLOGY:

A PRACTICAL MANUAL FOR STUDENTS AND
PHYSICIANS.

BY
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PHILADELPHIA.

*SECOND EDITION, ENLARGED AND THOROUGHLY
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With 94 Illustrations, of which 17 are Colored.



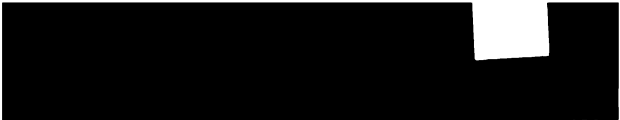
PHILADELPHIA:
LEA BROTHERS & CO.
1894.



Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1894, by
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DORNAN, PRINTER.

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PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

THE cordial reception with which this book has met, and the demand for a second edition, afford the author no small degree of gratification. In revising *The Principles of Bacteriology* advantage has been taken of the valuable suggestions kindly offered by the reviewers of the first edition, for which the writer here acknowledges his indebtedness.

The section of the work devoted to descriptive bacteriology has been somewhat extended, but no effort has been made to cover the entire field, only those species being introduced that are comparatively common, or of importance in enabling the student to acquire a fundamental working knowledge capable of wider application. Wherever practicable, these descriptions have been supplemented by illustrations, for the majority of which the author is responsible. The introduction of colored figures in the text is a new feature in this edition, and one which should increase its usefulness. A sketch of the evolution of our knowledge upon immunity and infection has been introduced, and an outline of apparatus necessary for a beginner's laboratory has been appended.

66266



PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

IN preparing this book the author has kept in mind the needs of the student and practitioner of medicine, for whom the importance of an acquaintance with practical bacteriology cannot be overestimated.

It is to advances made through bacteriological research that we are indebted for much of our knowledge of the conditions underlying infection, and for the elucidation of many hitherto obscure problems concerning the etiology, the modes of transmission, and the means of prevention of infectious maladies.

Only within a comparatively short time have students and physicians been enabled to obtain the systematic instruction in this science that is of value in aiding them in their efforts to check disease. The rapid increase in the number who are availing themselves of these opportunities speaks directly for the practical value of the science.

As the majority of those undertaking the study of bacteriology do so with the view of utilizing it in medical practice, and as many of these can devote to it but a portion of their time, it is desirable that the subject-matter be presented in as direct a manner as possible.

Presuming the reader to be unfamiliar with the subject, the author has restricted himself to those fundamental features that are essential to its understanding. The object has been to present the important ideas and methods as concisely as is compatible with clearness, and at the same time to accentuate throughout the underlying principles which govern the work.

With the view of inducing independent thought on the part of the student, and of diminishing the frequency of that oft-heard query, "What shall I do next?" experiments have been suggested wherever it is possible. These have been arranged to illustrate the salient points of the work and to attract attention to the minute details, upon the observation of which so much in bacteriology depends.

A. C. A.

PHILADELPHIA, December, 1891.

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CONTENTS.

INTRODUCTION.

	PAGES
The overthrow of the doctrine of spontaneous generation and the further application of the law: "Omne vivum ex vivo"—The birth of modern bacteriology	13-26

CHAPTER I.

Definition of bacteria—Their place in nature—Difference between parasites and saprophytes—Nutrition of bacteria—Products of bacteria—Their relation to oxygen—Influence of temperature upon their growth	27-35
--	-------

CHAPTER II.

Morphology of bacteria—Grouping—Mode of multiplication—Spore-formation—Motility	36-46
---	-------

CHAPTER III.

Principles of sterilization by heat—Methods employed—Discontinued sterilization—Sterilization under pressure—Apparatus employed—Chemical disinfection and sterilization	47-67
---	-------

CHAPTER IV.

The principles involved in the methods of isolating bacteria in pure cultures by the plate method of Koch—Materials employed	68-72
--	-------

CHAPTER V.

Preparation of nutrient media—Bouillon, gelatin, agar-agar, potato, blood-serum, etc.	73-96
---	-------

CHAPTER VI.

	PAGES
Preparation of tubes, flasks, etc., in which media are to be preserved	97-100

CHAPTER VII.

Technique of making plates—Esmarch tubes, Petri plates, etc.	101-110
--	---------

CHAPTER VIII.

The incubating oven—Gas pressure regulator—Thermoregulator—Safety burner for heating the incubator . . .	111-118
--	---------

CHAPTER IX.

The study of colonies—Their naked-eye appearances and their variations under different conditions—Differences in the structure of colonies of different species of bacteria—Stab cultures—Slant cultures	119-123
--	---------

CHAPTER X.

Methods of staining—Solutions employed—Preparation and staining of cover-slips—Preservation and preparation of tissues for section cutting—Staining of tissues, general and special methods	124-158
---	---------

CHAPTER XI.

Systematic study of an organism—Points to be considered in identifying an organism as a definite species . .	159-184
--	---------

CHAPTER XII.

Inoculation of animals—The various methods: subcutaneous; intra-venous; into the great serous cavities; into the anterior chamber of the eye—Observation of animals after inoculation	185-203
---	---------

CHAPTER XIII.

Post-mortem examination of animals—Bacteriological examination of tissues at autopsy—Disposal of tissues and disinfection of instruments after the examination . . .	204-208
--	---------

APPLICATION OF THE METHODS OF BACTERIOLOGY. DESCRIPTIONS OF SOME OF THE MORE IM- PORTANT SPECIES.

CHAPTER XIV.

	PAGES
To obtain material with which to begin work . . .	209-212

CHAPTER XV.

Various experiments in sterilization, by steam and by hot air	213-217
--	---------

CHAPTER XVI.

Suppuration—The staphylococcus pyogenes aureus— Staphylococcus pyogenes albus and citreus—Streptococcus pyogenes—Bacillus pyocyaneus—General remarks . . .	218-236
--	---------

CHAPTER XVII.

Sputum septicæmia—Septicæmia caused by the micro- coccus tetragenus—Tuberculosis	237-248
---	---------

CHAPTER XVIII.

Tuberculosis—Microscopic appearance of miliary tuber- cles—Encapsulation of tuberculous foci—Diffuse caseation —Cavity formation—Primary infection—Modes of infec- tion—Location of the bacilli in the tissues—Staining pecu- liarities of the bacillus tuberculosis—Organisms with which the bacillus tuberculosis may be confounded—Points of differentiation	249-268
---	---------

CHAPTER XIX.

Glanders—Characteristics of the disease—Histological structure of the glanders nodule—Susceptibility of differ- ent animals to glanders—The bacillus of glanders, its morphological and cultural peculiarities—Diagnosis of glanders	269-278
--	---------

CHAPTER XX.

PAGES

The *bacillus diphtheriæ*—Its isolation and cultivation—Morphological and cultural peculiarities—Pathogenic properties—Variations in virulence 279-294

CHAPTER XXI.

Typhoid fever—The *bacillus typhi abdominalis*, its morphological, biological and pathogenic peculiarities—The *bacterium coli commune*—Its resemblance to the bacillus of typhoid fever—Its morphological, cultural, and pathogenic properties—Differentiation between the two organisms 295-312

CHAPTER XXII.

The spirillum (comma bacillus) of Asiatic cholera—Its morphological, biological, and pathogenic peculiarities—The bacteriological diagnosis of Asiatic cholera 313-339

CHAPTER XXIII.

Organisms of interest, historic and otherwise, that have been confounded with the spirillum of Asiatic cholera—Their peculiarities and points of differentiation—*Vibrio proteus* or bacillus of Finkler and Prior—*Spirillum tyroginum* or cheese spirillum of Deneke—Spirillum of Miller—*Vibrio Metchnikovi* 340-356

CHAPTER XXIV.

The *bacillus anthracis* and its effects upon animals—Its peculiarities under varying conditions of surroundings 357-369

CHAPTER XXV.

The more important of the organisms found in the soil—The nitrifying organisms—The bacillus of tetanus—Bacillus of malignant œdema—Bacillus of symptomatic anthrax 370-394

CHAPTER XXVI.

Infection and immunity—The types of infection, intimate nature of the same—Septicæmia—Toxæmia—Variations in infectious processes—Immunity, natural and acquired—The hypotheses that have been advanced in explanation of immunity—Conclusions 395-417

CONTENTS.

xi

CHAPTER XXVII.

PAGES

Bacteriological study of water, air, soil—Methods employed—Precautions to be observed—Apparatus used and methods of using them	418-441
--	---------

CHAPTER XXVIII.

Methods of testing disinfectants and antiseptics—Experiments illustrative of the precautions to be taken—Experiments in skin-disinfection	442-454
---	---------

APPENDIX.

Apparatus necessary in a beginner's bacteriological laboratory	455-460
--	---------





BACTERIOLOGY.

INTRODUCTION.

"Omne vivum ex vivo"—The overthrow of the doctrine of spontaneous generation—Earlier bacteriological studies—The birth of modern bacteriology.

THE study of Bacteriology may be said to have had its beginning with the observations of Antony van Leeuwenhoek in the year 1675. Though it is during the past decade and a half that this line of research has received its greatest impulse, yet by a review of the developmental stages through which it has passed in its life of more than two centuries we see that it has a most interesting and instructive history. From the very outset its history is inseparably connected with that of medicine, and as it now stands its relations to hygiene and preventive medicine are of the utmost importance. It is, indeed, to a more intimate acquaintance with the biological activities of the unicellular, vegetable micro-organisms that modern hygiene owes much of its value and our knowledge of infectious diseases has reached the position it now occupies. Though the contributions which have done most to place bacteriology on the footing of a science are those of recent years, still, during the earlier stages of its development, many observations were made which formed the foundation work for much that was to follow. Before regularly begin-

ning our studies, therefore, it may be of advantage to acquaint ourselves with the more prominent of these investigations.

Antony van Leeuwenhoek, the first to describe the bodies now recognized as bacteria, was born at Delft, in Holland, in 1632. He was not considered a man of liberal education, having been during his early years an apprentice to a linendraper. During his apprenticeship he learned the art of lens-grinding, in which he became so proficient that he eventually perfected a simple lens by means of which he was enabled to see objects of much smaller dimensions than any hitherto seen with the best compound microscopes in existence at that date. At the time of his discoveries he was following the trade of linendraper in Amsterdam.

In 1675 he published the fact that he had succeeded in perfecting a lens by means of which he could detect in a drop of rain-water living, motile "animalcules" of the most minute dimensions—smaller than anything that had hitherto been seen. Encouraged by this discovery, he continued to examine various substances for the presence of what he considered animal life in its most minute form. He found in sea-water, in well-water, in the intestinal canal of frogs and birds, and in his own diarrhoeal evacuations, objects that differentiated themselves the one from the other, not only by their shape and size, but also by the peculiarity of movement which some of them were seen to possess. In the year 1683 he discovered in the tartar scraped from between the teeth a form of micro-organism upon which he laid special stress. This observation he embodied in the form of a contribution which was presented to the Royal Society of London on September 14, 1683. This

paper is of particular importance, not only because of the careful, objective nature of the description given of the bodies seen by him, but also for the illustrations which accompany it. From a perusal of the text and an inspection of the plates there remains little room for doubt that Leeuwenhoek with his primitive lens had seen the bodies now recognized as bacteria.

Upon seeing these bodies he was apparently very much impressed, for he writes: "With the greatest astonishment I saw that everywhere through the material which I was examining were distributed animalcules of the most microscopic dimensions, which moved themselves about in a remarkably energetic way."

This observation was shortly followed by others of an equally important nature. His field of observation appears to have increased rapidly, for after a time he speaks of bodies of much smaller dimensions than those at first described by him.

Throughout all of Leeuwenhoek's work there is a conspicuous absence of the speculative. His contributions are remarkable for their purely objective nature.

After the presence of these organisms in water, in the mouth, and in the intestinal evacuations was made known to the world, it is hardly surprising that they were immediately seized upon as the explanation of the origin of many obscure diseases. So universal became the belief in a causal relation between these "animalcules" and disease, that it amounted almost to a germ mania. It became the fashion to suspect the presence of these organisms in all forms and kinds of disease, simply because they had been demonstrated in water.

Though nothing of value at the time had been done in the way of classification, and still less in separating

and identifying the members of this large group, still, the foremost men of the day did not hesitate to ascribe to them not only the property of producing disease conditions, but some even went so far as to hold that variations in the appearance of symptoms of disease were the result of differences in the behavior of the organisms in the tissues.

Marcus Antonius Plenciz, a physician of Vienna in 1762, declared himself a firm believer in the work of Leeuwenhoek, and based the doctrine which he taught upon the discoveries of the Dutch observer and upon observations of a confirmatory nature which he himself had made. The doctrine of Plenciz assumed a causal relation between the micro-organisms discovered and described by Leeuwenhoek and all infectious diseases. He claimed that the material of infection could be nothing else than a living substance, and endeavored on these grounds to explain the variations in the period of incubation of the different infectious diseases. He likewise believed the living contagium to be capable of multiplication within the body, and spoke of the possibility of its transmission through the air. He claimed a special germ for each disease, holding that just as from a given cereal only one kind of grain can grow, so by the special germ for each disease only that disease can be produced.

He found in all decomposing matters innumerable minute "animalculæ," and was so firmly convinced of their etiological relation to the process that he formulated the law: that decomposition can only take place when the decomposable material becomes coated with a layer of the organisms, and can proceed only when they increase and multiply.

However convincing the arguments of Plenciz appear, they seem to have been lost sight of in the course of subsequent events, and by a few were even regarded as the productions of an unbalanced mind. For example, as late as 1820 we find Ozanam expressing himself on the subject as follows: "Many authors have written concerning the animal nature of the contagion of infectious diseases; many have indeed assumed it to be developed from animal substances and that it is itself animal, and possesses the property of life. I shall not waste time in efforts to refute these absurd hypotheses."

Similar expressions of opinion were heard from many other medical men of the time, all tending in the same direction, all doubting the possibility of these microscopic creatures belonging to the world of living things.

It was not until between the fourth and fifth decade of the present century that by the fortunate coincidence of a number of important discoveries the true relation of the lower organisms to infectious diseases was scientifically pointed out. With the investigations of Pasteur upon the cause of putrefaction in beer and the souring of wine; with the discovery by Pollender and Davaine of the presence of rod-shaped organisms in the blood of all animals dead of splenic fever, and with the progress of knowledge upon the parasitic nature of certain diseases of plants, the old question of "*contagium animatum*" again began to receive attention. It was taken up by Henle, and it was he who first logically taught this doctrine of infection.

The main point, however, which had occupied the attention of scientific men from time to time for a period of about two hundred years subsequent to

Leeuwenhoek's discoveries, was the origin of these bodies. Do they generate spontaneously, or are they the descendants of pre-existing creatures of the same kind? was the all-important question. Among the participants in this discussion were many of the most distinguished men of the day.

In 1749 Needham, who held firmly to the opinion that the bodies which were creating such a general interest developed spontaneously, as the result of vegetative changes in the substances in which they were found, attempted to demonstrate by experiment the grounds upon which he held this view. He maintained that the bacteria which were seen to appear around a grain of barley which was allowed to germinate in a watch-crystal of water, which had been carefully covered, were the result of changes in the barley-grain itself, incidental to its germination.

Spallanzani, in 1769, drew attention to the laxity of the methods employed by Needham, and demonstrated that if infusions of decomposable vegetable matter were placed in flasks, which were then hermetically sealed, and the flasks and their contents allowed to remain for some time in a vessel of boiling water, neither living organisms could be detected nor would decomposition appear in the infusions so treated. The objection raised by Treviranus, viz., that the high temperature to which the infusions had been subjected had so altered them and the air about them, that the conditions favorable to spontaneous generation no longer existed, was met by Spallanzani by gently tapping one of the flasks that had been boiled, against some hard object until a minute crack was produced; invariably organisms and decomposition appeared in the flask thus treated.

From the time of the experiments of Spallanzani until as late as 1836 but little advance was made in the elucidation of this obscure problem.

In 1836 Schulze attracted attention to the subject by the convincing nature of his investigations. He showed that if the air which gained access to boiled infusions was robbed of its living organisms by being caused to pass through strong acid or alkaline solutions no decomposition appeared and living organisms could not be detected in the infusions. Following quickly upon this contribution came Schwann, in 1837, and somewhat later (1854) Schröder and Dusch, with similar results obtained by somewhat different means. Schwann deprived the air which passed to his infusions of its living particles by passing it through highly-heated tubes; whereas Schröder and Dusch, by means of cotton-wool interposed between the boiled infusion and the outside air, robbed the air passing to the infusions of its organisms by the simple process of filtration. In 1860 Hoffmann and in 1861 Chevreul and Pasteur demonstrated that the precautions taken by the preceding investigators for rendering the air which entered these flasks free from bacteria were not necessary; that all that was necessary to prevent the access of bacteria to the infusions in the flasks was to draw out the neck of the flask into a fine tube, bend it down along the side of the flask and then bend it up again a few inches from its extremity, and leave the mouth open. The infusion was then to be boiled in the flask thus prepared and the mouth of the tube left open. The organisms which now fall into the tube will be arrested by the drop of water of condensation which collects at its lowest angle, and none can enter the flask.

Conclusive as this work may appear, there still existed a number of doubters who required further proof that "spontaneous generation" was not the explanation for the mysterious appearance of these minute living objects, and it was not until some time later that Tyndall, in his well-known investigations upon the floating matters in the air, demonstrated again that the presence of living organisms in decomposing fluids was always to be explained either by the pre-existence of similar living forms in the infusion or upon the walls of the vessel containing it, or by the infusion having been exposed to air which had not been deprived of its organisms.

Throughout all the work bearing upon this subject, from the time of Spallanzani to that of Tyndall, certain irregularities were constantly appearing. It was found that particular substances required to be heated for a much longer time than was necessary to render other substances free from living organisms, and even under the most careful precautions decomposition would occasionally appear.

In 1762 Bonnet, who was deeply interested in this subject, suggested, in reference to the results obtained by Needham, the possibility of the existence of "germs, or their eggs," which have the power to resist the temperature to which some of the infusions employed in Needham's experiments had been subjected.

More than a hundred years after Bonnet had made this purely speculative suggestion it became the task of Ferdinand Cohn, of Breslau, to demonstrate its accuracy.

Cohn repeated the foregoing experiments with like results. He concluded that the irregularities could only be due to either the existence of more resistant species of bacteria or to more resistant stages into which certain

bacteria have the property of passing. After much work he demonstrated that certain of the rod-shaped organisms possess the power of passing into a resting or spore stage in the course of their life history, and when in this stage they are much less susceptible to the deleterious action of high temperatures than when they are growing as normal vegetative forms. With the discovery of these more resistant spores the doctrine of spontaneous generation received its final blow. It was no longer difficult to explain the irregularities in the foregoing experiments, nor was it any longer to be doubted that putrefaction and fermentation were the result of bacterial life and not the cause of it, and that these bacteria were the offspring from pre-existing similar forms. In other words, the law of Harvey, *Omne vivum ex ovo*, or its modification, *Omne vivum ex vivo*, was shown to apply not only to the more highly organized members of the animal and vegetable kingdoms, but to the most microscopic, unicellular creatures as well.

The establishment of this point served as an impetus to further investigations, and as the all-important question was that concerning the relation of these microscopic organisms to disease, attention naturally turned to this channel of study. Even before the hypothesis of spontaneous generation had received its final refutation a number of observations of a most important nature had been made by investigators who had long since ceased to consider spontaneous generation as a tenable explanation of the origin of the microscopic living particles.

In the main, these studies had been conducted upon wounds and the infections to which they are liable ; in

fact, the evolution of our knowledge of bacteriology to the point it now occupies is so intimately associated with this particular line of investigation that a few historical facts in connection with it may not be without interest.

The observations of Rindfleisch, in 1866, in which he describes the presence of small, pin-head points in the myocardium and general musculature of individuals that have died as a result of infected wounds offer, probably, the first reliable contribution to this subject. He studied the tissue changes round about these points to the stage of miliary abscess formation. He refers to the organisms as "vibrios." Almost simultaneously Von Recklinghausen and Waldeyer described similar changes that they had observed in pyæmia and occasionally secondary to typhoid fever. Von Recklinghausen believed the granules seen in the abscess-points to be micrococci and not tissue detritus, and gave as the reason that they were regular in size and shape, and gave specific reactions with particular staining fluids. Birch-Hirschfeld was able to trace bacteria found in the blood and organs to the wound as the point of entrance, and believed both the local and constitutional condition to stand in direct ratio to the number of spherical bacteria present in the wound. He observed also that as the organisms increased in number they could often be found within the bodies of pus corpuscles. His studies of pyæmia led him to the important conclusion that in this condition micro-organisms were always present in the blood.

Of immense importance to the subject were the investigations of Klebs, made at the Military Hospital at Carlsruhe in 1870-71. He not only saw, as others

before him had done, that bacteria were present in diseases following upon the infection of wounds, but described the manner in which the organisms had gained entrance from the point of injury to the internal organs and blood. His opinion was that the spherical and rod-shaped bodies that he saw in the secretions of wounds were closely allied, and gave to them the designation "microsporon septicum." His opinion was that the organisms gained access to the tissues round about the point of injury both by the aid of the wandering leucocytes and by being forced through the connective-tissue lymph spaces by the mechanical pressure of muscular contraction.

On erysipelatous inflammations secondary to injury important investigations were also being made. Wilde, Orth, Von Recklinghausen, Lukomsky, Billroth, Ehrlich, Fehleisen, and others agreeing that in these conditions micro-organisms could always be detected in the lymph channels of the subcutaneous tissues; and through the work of Oertel, Nassiloff, Classen, Lœtzerich, Klebs, and Eberth the constant presence of bacteria in the diphtheritic deposits at times seen on open wounds was established. Simple and natural as all this may seem to us now, the stage to which the subject had developed when these observations were recorded did not admit of their meeting with unconditional acceptance. The only strong argument in favor of the etiological relation of the organisms that had been seen, in production of the diseases with which they were associated, was the constancy of this association. No efforts had been made to isolate them, and few or none to reproduce the pathological conditions by inoculation. Moreover, not a small number of investigators were

skeptical as to the importance of these observations; many claimed that micro-organisms were normally present in the blood and tissues of the body, and some even believed that the organisms seen in the diseased conditions were the result rather than the cause of the maladies. It is hardly necessary to do more than say that both of these views were purely speculative, and have never had a single reliable experimental argument in their favor. Billroth and Tiegel, who held to the former opinion, did endeavor to prove their position through experimental means, but the methods employed by them were of such an untrustworthy nature that the fallacy of deductions drawn from them was very quickly demonstrated by subsequent investigators. Their method for demonstrating the presence of micro-organisms in normal tissue was to remove bits of tissue from the healthy animal body with heated instruments and drop them into hot melted paraffin, holding that all living organisms on the surface of the tissues would be destroyed by the high temperature, and that if decomposition should subsequently occur, it would prove that it was the result of the growth of bacteria in the depths of the tissue to which the heat had not penetrated. Decomposition did usually set in, and they accepted this as proof of the accuracy of their view. Attention was, however, shortly called to the fact that in cooling the contraction of the paraffin caused small rents and cracks into which dust, and bacteria lodged upon it, could accumulate and finally gain access to the tissues with the occurrence of decomposition as a consequence. Their results were thus explained after a manner analogous to that employed by Spallanzani, in 1769, in demonstrating to Treviranus the fallacy of the

opinion held by him and the accuracy of his own views, viz., that it was always through the access of organisms from without that decomposition primarily originates. (See page 18.)

Under the most careful precautions, against which no objection could be raised, these experiments of Billroth and Tiegel were repeated by Pasteur, Burdon-Sanderson, and Klebs, but with failure in each and every instance to demonstrate the presence of bacteria in the healthy living tissues.

The fundamental researches of Koch (1881) upon pathogenic bacteria and their relation to the infectious diseases of animals differed from those of preceding investigators in many important respects. The scientific methods of analysis with which each and every obscure problem was met as it arose served at once to distinguish the worker as a pioneer in this hitherto but partly cultivated domain. The outcome of these experiments was the establishment of a foundation upon which bacteriology of the future was to rest. He, for the first time, demonstrated that distinct varieties of infection, as evidenced by anatomical changes, are due in many cases to the activities of particular specific organisms, and that by proper methods it is possible to isolate these organisms in pure culture, to cultivate them indefinitely, to reproduce the conditions by inoculation of these pure cultures into susceptible animals, and, by continuous inoculation from an infected to a healthy animal, to continue the disease at will. By the methods that he employed he demonstrated a series of separate and distinct diseases that can be produced in mice and rabbits by the injection into their tissues of putrid substances. The diseases known as septicaemia of mice,

a disease characterized by progressive abscess formation, and pyæmia and septicæmia of rabbits, are among the affections produced by him in this way. It was in the course of this work that the Abbe system of substage condensing apparatus was first used in bacteriology; that the aniline dyes suggested by Weigert were brought into general use; that the isolation and cultivation of bacteria in pure culture on solid media was shown to be possible; and that animals were employed as a means of obtaining pure cultures of pathogenic bacteria.

With the bounteous harvest of original and important suggestions that was reaped from Koch's classical series of investigations bacteriology reached an epoch in its development, and at this period modern bacteriology may justly be said to have had its birth.

NOTE.—I have presented only the most prominent investigations that will serve to indicate the lines along which the subject has developed. For a more detailed account of the historical development of the work the reader is referred to Loeffler's *Vorlesungen über die geschichtliche Entwicklung der Lehre von den Bakterien*, upon which I have drawn largely in preparing the foregoing sketch.



CHAPTER I.

Definition of bacteria—Their place in nature—Difference between parasites and saprophytes—Nutrition of bacteria—Products of bacteria—Their relation to oxygen—Influence of temperature upon their growth.

By the term bacteria is understood that large group of minute vegetable organisms which multiply by a process of transverse division. They are spherical, oval, rod-like, and spiral in shape, and are commonly devoid of chlorophyll.¹ Owing to the absence of chlorophyll from their composition the bacteria are forced to obtain their nutritive materials from organic matters as such, and lead, therefore, either a saprophytic² or parasitic³ form of existence.

Their life processes are so rapid and energetic that they result in the most profound alterations in the structure and composition of the materials in and upon which they are developing.

Decomposition, putrefaction, and fermentation result from the activities of the saprophytic bacteria, while the changes brought about in the tissues of their host

¹ Chlorophyll is the green coloring matter possessed by the higher plants by means of which they are enabled in the presence of sunlight to decompose carbonic acid (CO_2) and ammonia (NH_3) into their elementary constituents.

² A saprophyte is an organism that obtains its nutrition from dead organic matter.

³ A parasite lives always at the expense of some other living, organic creature, known as its host, and in the strictest sense of the word cannot develop upon dead matter. There is, however, a group of so-called "facultative" saprophytes and parasites which possess the power of accommodating themselves to existing surroundings—at one time leading a parasitic, at another time a saprophytic form of existence.

by the pure parasitic forms, find expression in disease processes and not infrequently complete death.

The rôle played in nature by the saprophytic bacteria is a very important one. Through their presence the highly complicated tissues of dead animals and vegetables are resolved into the simpler compounds, carbonic acid, water, and ammonia, in which form they may be taken up and appropriated as nutrition by the more highly organized members of the vegetable kingdom. It is through this ultimate production of carbonic acid, ammonia, and water by the bacteria, as end-products in the processes of decomposition and fermentation of the dead animal and vegetable tissues, that the demands of growing vegetation for these compounds are supplied.

The chlorophyll plants do not possess the power of obtaining their carbon and nitrogen from such highly organized and complicated substances as serve for the nutrition of bacteria, and as the production of these simpler compounds (CO_2 , NH_3 , H_2O) by the animal world is not sufficient to meet the demands of the chlorophyll plants, the importance of the part played by bacteria in making up this deficit cannot be overestimated. Were it not for the activity of these microscopic living particles, all life upon the surface of the earth would undoubtedly cease. Deprive higher vegetation of the carbon and nitrogen supplied to it as a result of bacterial activity, and its development comes rapidly to an end; rob the animal kingdom of the food-stuffs supplied to it by the vegetable world, and life is no longer possible.

It is plain, therefore, that the saprophytes, which represent the large majority of all bacteria, must be

looked upon by us in the light of benefactors, without which existence would be impossible.

With the parasites, on the other hand, the conditions are far from analogous. Through their activities there is constantly a loss, rather than a gain, to both the animal and vegetable kingdoms. Their host must always be a living body in which exist conditions favorable to their development and from which they appropriate substances necessary to the health and life of the organism to which they may have found access; at the same time they eliminate substances as products of their nutrition that are directly poisonous to the tissues in which they are growing.

In their relations to humanity the positions occupied by the two biologically different groups, the saprophytes on the one hand and the parasites on the other, are diametrically opposite; the saprophytic forms standing in the relation of benefactors, in resolving dead animal and vegetable bodies into their component parts, which serve for food for living vegetation, and, at the same time, removing from the surface of the earth the remains of all dead organic substances; while the parasitic group exists only at the expense of the more highly organized members of both kingdoms. It is to the parasitic group that the pathogenic¹ organisms belong.

In addition to the saprophytes that are concerned in the changes to which allusion has just been made, there exist other saprophytic forms whose life processes result in specific changes of most interesting and important natures. Some of these are characterized by their property of producing pigments of different color;

¹ Pathogenic organisms are those which possess the property of producing disease.

these are known as the *chromogenic*¹ forms. Just what their exact rôle in Nature is, it is difficult to say ; but it is probable that in addition to their most conspicuous function of color production, they are also in some way concerned in the great process of disintegration which is constantly going on in all dead organic substances.

Others, the so-called *photogenic*, or phosphorescent bacteria, possess the property of producing light or of illuminating the medium on which they grow by a peculiar phosphorescence. These are found in sea-water and in decomposing phosphorescent fish and meat.

Still others, the so-called *zymogenic* bacteria, are concerned in the various fermentations, while the putrefactive or *saprogenic* bacteria are those that produce the particular fermentation that we know as putrefaction. Another very important saprophytic group comprises the so-called *nitrifying* and *denitrifying* bacteria, whose activities result in specific forms of fermentation—the former oxidizing ammonia to nitrous and nitric acid, the latter reducing nitric acid to nitrous acid and ammonia. The so-called *thiogenic* bacteria convert sulphuretted hydrogen into higher sulphur compounds.

We have said that through the agency of chlorophyll, in the presence of sunlight, the green plants are enabled to obtain the amount of nitrogen and carbon which is necessary to their growth from such simple bodies as carbon dioxide and ammonia, which they decompose into their elementary constituents. The bacteria, on the other hand, owing to the absence of chlorophyll from their tissues, do not possess this power. They must, there-

¹ Chromogenic, possessing the property of generating color.

fore, have their carbon and nitrogen presented as such, in the form of decomposable organic substances.

In general, the bacteria obtain their nitrogen most readily from soluble albumins, and, to a certain degree, but by no means so easily, from salts of ammonia. In some of Nægeli's experiments it appeared probable that they could obtain the necessary amount of nitrogen from salts of nitric acid. At all events, he was able in certain cases to demonstrate a reduction of nitric to nitrous acid, and ultimately to ammonia. Nevertheless, in all of these experiments circumstances point to the probability that the nitrogen obtained by the bacteria for building up their tissues in the course of their development, was derived from some source other than that of the nitric acid or the nitrates, and that the reduction of this acid was most probably a secondary phenomenon.

For the supply of carbon, many of the carbon compounds serve as sources upon which the bacteria can draw. The carbon deficit, for example, can be obtained from sugar and bodies of like composition; from glycerine and many of the fatty acids; and from the alkaline salts of tartaric, citric, malic, lactic, and acetic acids. In some instances carbon compounds, which when present in concentrated form inhibit the growth of bacteria, may, when highly diluted, serve as nutrition for them. Salicylic acid and ethyl alcohol come under this head.

In addition to carbon and nitrogen, water is essential to the life and development of bacteria. Without it no development occurs, and in many cases drying the organisms results in their death. Certain forms, on the contrary, though incapable of multiplying when in the

best in media of a neutral or very slightly alkaline reaction, any excessive production of alkalinity or acidity, as a product of growth, arrests development, and no evidence of life or further multiplication can be detected until this deviation from the neutral reaction has been corrected.

Most favorable for the development of bacteria are neutral or very slightly alkaline solutions of albumin in one form or another.

Of considerable importance and interest in the study of the nutritive changes of bacteria is the difference in their relation to oxygen. With certain forms oxygen is essential for the proper performance of their functions, while with another group no evidence of life can be detected under the access of oxygen, and in a third group oxygen appears to play but an unimportant part, for development occurs as well with as without it. It was Pasteur who first demonstrated the existence of species in the bacteria family which not only grow and multiply and perform definite physiological functions without the aid of oxygen, but to the existence of which oxygen is positively harmful. To these he gave the name *anaërobic* bacteria, in contradistinction to another group for the proper performance of whose functions oxygen is essential; these he called *aërobic* bacteria. In addition to these, there is a third group for the maintenance of whose existence the absence or presence of oxygen is apparently of no moment—their development progresses as well with as without it; these represent the class known as *facultative* in their relation to this gas. It is in this third group, the facultative, that the majority of bacteria belong. Though the multiplication of the facultative varieties is not inter-

ferred with by either the presence or absence of oxygen, yet experiments demonstrate that the products of their growth are different under the varying conditions of absence or presence of this gas.

For example: in the case of certain of the chromogenic forms the presence or absence of oxygen has a very decided effect upon the production of the pigments by which they are characterized.

NOTE.—Observe the difference between the intensity of color produced upon the surface of the medium and that along the track of the needle in stab-cultures of the *bacillus prodigiosus* and of the *spirillum rubrum*. With the former the red color is apparently a product dependent upon the presence of oxygen, while in the latter the greatest intensity of color occurs at the point farthest removed from the action of oxygen.

Another element which plays a most important part in the biological functions of these organisms is the temperature under which they exist. The extremes of temperature under which most bacteria are known to grow range from 5.5° C. to 48° C. At the former temperature development is hardly appreciable; it becomes more and more active until 38° C. is reached, when it is at its optimum, and, as a rule, ceases with 43° C.; though it is said that species exist that will multiply at as high a temperature as 60° C. and others as low as 0° C. The most favorable temperature for the development of pathogenic bacteria is that of the human body, viz., 37.5° C. There are a number of bacteria commonly present in water, the so-called normal water bacteria, that grow best at about 20° C.

INFLUENCE OF TEMPERATURE ON BACTERIA. 35

In general then, from what has been learned, it may be said that for the growth and development of bacteria organic matter of a neutral or slightly alkaline reaction, in the presence of moisture and at a suitable temperature, is necessary. From this can be formed some idea of the omnipresence in Nature of these minute vegetable forms. Everywhere that these conditions obtain bacteria can be found.

CHAPTER II.

Morphology¹ of bacteria—Grouping—Mode of multiplication—Spore-formation—Motility.

IN structure the bacteria are unicellular, and are seen to exist as spherical, rod- or spiral-shaped bodies. They always develop from pre-existing cells of the same character and never appear spontaneously.

The classifications of the older authors and of the botanists are usually upon purely morphological peculiarities, and in consequence are more or less complicated. The present tendency is to simplify this morphological classification, and to bring the bacteria into three great groups, with their subdivisions: each group comprising those members whose individual outline is that either of a sphere, a rod, or a spiral.

To these three grand divisions are given the names cocci or micrococci, bacilli, and spirilla.

In the group *micrococci* belong all spherical forms, *i. e.*, all those forms the isolated individual members of which are of equal diameter in all directions. (See Fig. 1, a b c d.)

The *bacilli* comprise all oval or rod-formed bacteria. (See Fig. 2.)

To the *spirilla* belong all organisms that are curved when seen in short segments, or when in longer threads are twisted in the form of a corkscrew. (See Fig. 3.)

The *micrococci* are subdivided according to their grouping, as seen in growing cultures, into *staphylococci*

¹ Morphology, pertaining to shape, outline.

FIG. 1.

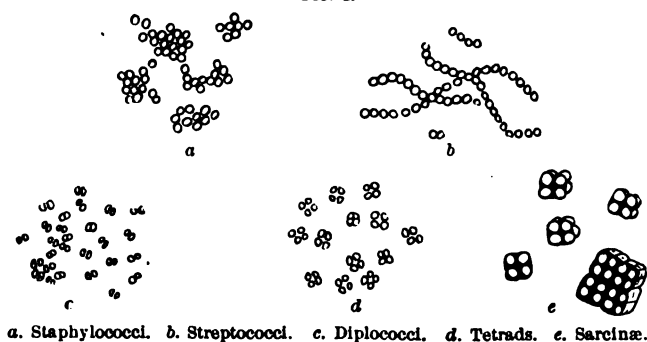


FIG. 2.

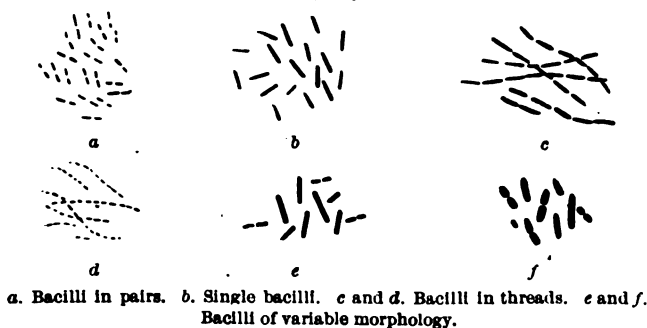
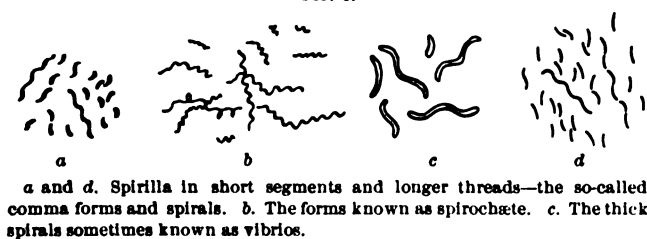


FIG. 3.



—those growing in masses like clusters of grapes (see Fig. 1, a); *streptococci*—those growing in chains con-

sisting of a number of individual cells strung together like beads or pearls upon a string (see Fig. 1, *b*); *diplococci*—those growing in pairs (Fig. 1, *c*); *tetrads*—those developing as fours (Fig. 1, *d*); and *sarcinae*—those dividing into fours, eights, etc., as cubes—that is, in contra-distinction to all other forms, the segmentation, which is rarely complete, takes place in three directions of space, so that when growing the bundle of segmenting cells presents somewhat the appearance of a bale of cotton (Fig. 1, *e*).

To the bacilli belong all rod-shaped organisms, *i. e.*, those in which one diameter is always greater than the other.

FIG. 4.



a. *Bacillus subtilis* with spores. b. *Bacillus anthracis* with spores. c. *Clostridium* form with spores. d. *Bacillus* of tetanus with end spores.

In this group are found those organisms the life cycle of many of which present deviations from the simple rod shape. Many of them in the course of development increase in length into long threads, along the course of which traces of segmentation may usually be found—the anthrax bacillus and bacillus subtilis are conspicuous examples of this. Again, under certain conditions, many of them possess the property of forming within the body of the rods oval, glistening spores (see Fig. 4), and if the conditions are not altered the rods may entirely disappear, so that nothing may be left in the culture but these oval forms. In some of them this

phenomenon of spore-formation is accompanied by an enlargement or swelling of the bacillus at the point at which the spore is located (see Fig. 4, *c* and *d*). Again, many of them, from unfavorable conditions of nutrition, aëration, or temperature undergo pathological changes—that is, the individuals themselves experience alterations in their protoplasm which result in distortion of their outline, and the appearance of the so-called “involution forms.” (See Fig. 5, *a* and *b*.) In all of

FIG. 5.



a. Spirillum of Asiatic cholera (comma bacillus). *b.* Involution forms of this organism as seen in old cultures.

these conditions, however, so long as death has not actually occurred, it is possible under favorable conditions to cause these forms to revert to the rod-shaped ones from which they originated.

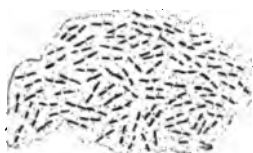
It must be borne in mind, though, that it is never possible by any means to bring about changes in these organisms that will result in the permanent conversion of the morphology of the members of one group into that of another—that is, one can never produce bacilli from micrococci or *vice versa*, and any evidence which may be presented to the contrary is based upon untrustworthy methods of observation.

Not infrequently bacteria may be observed irregularly massed together as a pellicle. When in this condition they are held together by a gelatinous

material, and are known as zoogloea of bacteria. (See Fig. 6.)

Very short oval bacilli may sometimes be mistaken for micrococci, and at times micrococci in the stage of segmentation into diplococci may be mistaken for short bacilli; but by careful inspection it will always be possible to detect a continuous outline along the sides of the former and a slight transverse indentation or partition-formation between the segments of the latter. The high index of refraction of spores, the property

FIG. 6.



Zoogloea of bacilli.

which gives to them their glistening appearance, will always serve to distinguish them from micrococci. This difference in refraction will be especially noticed if the illumination from the reflector of the microscope with which they are to be examined is reduced to the smallest possible bundle of light-rays. The spores, moreover, take up the staining reagents much less readily than do the micrococci. The most reliable differential point, however, is the property, possessed by the spores, of developing into bacilli; and of the spherical organism with which it has been confounded, of producing other micrococci of the same round form.

For convenience, a common classification of the bacilli is that based upon constant characteristics which are seen to appear in the course of their development

under special conditions—certain of them possessing the power of forming spores, while from others this peculiarity is absent.

As yet but little is known of the life history of the spiral forms. Efforts toward their cultivation under artificial conditions have thus far been successful in only a few cases. Morphologically, they are thread- or rod-like bodies which are twisted into the form of spirals. In some of them the turns of the spiral are long, in others quite short. They are motile, and multiply apparently by the simple process of fission.¹

The micrococci develop by simple fission. When development is in progress a single cell will be seen to elongate slightly in one of its diameters. Over the centre of the long axis thus formed will appear a slight indentation in the outer envelope of the cell; this indentation will increase in extent until there exist eventually two individuals which are distinctly spherical, as was the parent from which they sprang, or they will remain together for a time as diplococci. The surfaces now in juxtaposition are flattened against one another, and not infrequently a fine, pale dividing line may be seen between the two cells. (See Fig. 1, *c* and *d*.) A similar division in the other direction will now result in the formation of a group of forms as tetrads.

In the formation of staphylococci such division occurs irregularly in all directions, resulting in the production of the clusters in which these organs are commonly seen. (See Fig. 1, *a*.) With the streptococci, however, the tendency is for the segmentation to continue in one direction only, resulting in the production

¹ Dividing into two transversely.

of long chains of 4, 8, and 12 individuals. (See Fig. 1, *b*).

The sarcinae divide more or less regularly in three directions of space, but instead of becoming separated the one from the other as single cells, the tendency is for the segmentation to be incomplete; the cells remaining together in masses. The indentations upon these masses or cubes which indicate the point of incomplete fission give to these bundles of cells the appearance commonly ascribed to them—that of a bale of cotton or a packet of rags. (See Fig. 1, *c*.)

The multiplication of bacilli is in the main similar to that given for the micrococci. A dividing cell will elongate slightly in the direction of its long axis; an indentation will appear about midway between its poles, and will become deeper and deeper until eventually two daughter cells will be formed. This process may occur in such a way that the two young bacilli will adhere together by their adjacent ends in much the same way that sausages are seen to be held together in strings (Fig. 2, *f*), or the segmentation may take place more at right angles to the long axis, so that the proximal ends of the young cells are flattened while the distal extremities may be rounded or slightly pointed (Fig. 2, *e*). The segmentation of the anthrax bacillus, with which we are subsequently to become acquainted, results, when completed, in an indentation of the adjacent extremities of the young segments, so that by the aid of high magnifying powers these surfaces are seen to be actually concave. (See Fig. 76.) Bacilli never divide longitudinally.

With the spore-forming bacilli, under favorable conditions of nutrition and temperature, the same is seen

to occur during vegetation, but as soon as these conditions become altered, either by the exhaustion of nutrition, the presence of detrimental substances, unfavorable temperatures, etc., there appears the stage in their life cycle to which we have referred as "spore-formation." This is the process by which the organisms are enabled to enter a stage in which they resist deleterious influences to a much higher degree than is possible for them when in the growing or vegetative condition.

In the spore, resting, or permanent stage, as it is called, no evidence of life whatever is given by the spores, though as soon as the conditions which favor their germination have been renewed, these spores develop again into the same kind of cells as those from which they originated, and the appearances observed in the vegetative or growing stage of their history are repeated.

Multiplication of spores, *as such*, does not occur; they possess the power of developing into individual rods of the same nature as those from which they were formed, *but not of giving rise to a direct reproduction of spores.*

When the conditions which favor spore-formation present, the protoplasm of the vegetative cells is seen to undergo a change. It loses its normal homogeneous appearance and becomes marked by granular, refractive points of irregular shape and size. These eventually coalesce, leaving the remainder of the cell clear and transparent. When this coalescence of highly refractive particles is complete the spore is perfected. In appearance, the spore is oval or round, very highly refractive, and of a glistening appearance. It is easily differentiated from the remainder of the cell, which now

consists only of a cell-membrane and a transparent, clear fluid which surrounds the spore. Eventually both the cell-membrane and its fluid contents disappear, leaving the oval spore free.

The spore, when perfectly developed, is highly glistening, oval in contour, and has the appearance of being surrounded by a dark, sharply defined border. It possesses no motion other than the mechanical tremor common to all insoluble microscopic particles suspended in fluids, and it remains quiescent until there appear conditions favorable to its subsequent development into the vegetative form from which it originated. Occasionally the membrane of the vegetative cell in which the spore is formed does not disappear from around it, and the spore may then be seen lying in a very delicate tubular envelope. Now and then remnants of the envelope may be noticed adhering to the spore which has not yet become completely free.

When stained, the spore-containing cells do not take up the dyes in a homogeneous way. By the ordinary methods the spores do not stain, so that they appear in the stained cells as pale, transparent, oval bodies, surrounded by the remainder of the cell, which has taken up the staining.

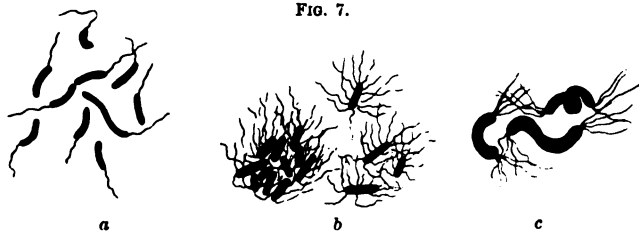
A single cell produces but one spore. This may be located either at an extremity or in the centre of the cell. (Fig. 4.)

Occasionally spore-formation is accompanied by an enlargement of the cell at the point at which the process is in progress. As a result, the outline of the cell loses its regular rod shape and becomes that of a club, a drum-stick, or a lozenge, depending upon whether the

location of the spore is to be at the pole or in the centre of the cell. (See Fig. 4, *e* and *d*.)

In addition to the property of spore-formation there is another striking difference between the members of the rod-shaped organisms, namely, the property of motility which many of them are seen to possess. This power of motion is due to the possession by the motile bacilli of very delicate, hair-like appendages or flagella, by the lashing motions of which the rods possessing them are propelled through the fluid. In some cases the flagella

FIG. 7.



a, spiral forms with a flagellum at only one end; *b*, bacillus of typhoid fever with flagella given off from all sides; *c*, large spirals from stagnant water with wisps of flagella at their ends (*spirillum undula*).

are located at but one end of a bacillus, either singly or in a bunch; again, they may be seen at both poles, and in some cases, especially with the bacillus of typhoid fever, they are given off from the whole surface of the rod. (See Fig. 7.)

For a long time the motility of bacteria was only supposed to be due to the possession of some such form of locomotive apparatus because similar appendages had been seen in certain of the large, motile spirilla found in stagnant water, and it was not until very recently that the accuracy of this suspicion was actually

demonstrated. By a special method of staining, Löffler has been able, in a number of cases, to render visible these hair-like appendages. His method consists in the employment of a mordant, by the aid of which the flagella are caused to retain the staining, and thus become visible. Löffler's method of staining will be found in the chapter devoted to this part of the technique.



CHAPTER III.

Principles of sterilization by heat—Methods employed—Discontinued sterilization—Sterilization under pressure—Apparatus employed—Chemical disinfection and sterilization.

IN the laboratory it is often common to employ the term sterilization for the destruction of bacteria by heat and the term disinfection for the accomplishment of the same end through the use of chemical agents. This distinction in the use of the terms is not strictly correct, as we shall endeavor to explain.

The laboratory application of the word sterilization for the destruction of bacteria by high temperatures probably arose from the circumstance that culture media and certain other articles that it is desirable to render absolutely free from bacterial life are not treated by chemical agents for this purpose, but are exposed to the influence of heat in various forms of apparatus known as sterilizers; and the process is, therefore, known as sterilization. On the other hand, cultures no longer useful, bits of infected tissue, and apparatus generally that it is desirable to render free from danger are commonly subjected for a time to the action of compounds possessing germicidal properties, *i. e.*, to the action of disinfectants; and the process is, therefore, known as disinfection, though the same end can be reached by the application of heat to these articles also. Strictly speaking, sterilization implies the complete destruction of the vitality of all micro-organisms that may be present in or upon the substance to be

sterilized, and can be accomplished by the proper application of both thermal and chemical agents; while disinfection, though it may, need not, of necessity, insure the destruction of all living forms that are present, but only those possessing the power of *infecting*; it may or may not, therefore, be incomplete in the sense of sterilization. From this we see it is possible to accomplish both sterilization and disinfection as well by chemical as by thermal means.

In practice the employment of these means is governed by circumstances. In the laboratory it is essential that all culture media with which the work is to be conducted are free from all living bacteria or their spores—they must be sterile—and it is equally important that their original chemical composition should remain unchanged. It is evident, therefore, that sterilization of these substances by means of chemicals is out of the question, for, while the media *could* be thus sterilized, it would be necessary, in order to accomplish this, to add to them substances capable not only of destroying all micro-organisms present, but the presence of such substances would prevent the growth of bacteria that are to be subsequently cultivated in these media—that is to say, after performing their sterilizing or germicidal function, they would, if present, exhibit their *antiseptic* properties. The circumstances under which *chemical* sterilization or disinfection is practised in the laboratory are ordinarily either those in which it is desirable to render materials free from danger that are not affected by the chemical action of the agents used, such as glass apparatus, etc., or where destructive changes in the composition of the substances to be treated, as in the cases of old cultures, infected

tissues, etc., are a matter of no consequence. On the other hand, for the sterilization of all materials to be used as culture media heat only is employed.

The two processes will be explained in this chapter, beginning with

STERILIZATION BY HEAT.

Sterilization by means of high temperature is accomplished in several ways, viz., by subjecting the substances to be treated to a high temperature in a properly constructed oven, this is known as *dry* sterilization; by subjecting them to the action of streaming or live steam at the temperature of 100° C.; and by subjecting them to the action of steam under pressure, under which circumstances the temperature to which they are exposed becomes more and more elevated as the pressure increases.

Experiments have taught us that the process of sterilization by dry heat has a relatively limited application because of its many disadvantages. For successful sterilization by the method of dry heat, not only is a relatively high temperature essential, but the substances under treatment must be exposed to this temperature for a comparatively long time. Its penetration into the substances which are to be sterilized is, moreover, much less energetic than that of steam. Many substances of vegetable and animal origin are rendered useless by subjection to the dry method of sterilization. For these reasons there are comparatively few materials that can be sterilized in this way without seriously impairing their further usefulness.

Successful sterilization by dry heat cannot usually be accomplished at a temperature lower than 150° C., and

to this degree of heat the objects should be subjected for not less than one hour. For the sterilization, therefore, of the organic materials of which the media employed in bacteriological work are composed, and of domestic articles, such as cotton, woollen, wooden, and leather articles, this method is entirely unsuitable. In bacteriological work its application is limited to the sterilization of glassware principally—such, for example, as flasks, plates, small dishes, test-tubes, pipettes—and such metal instruments as are not seriously injured by the high temperature.

Sterilization by moist heat—steam—offers conditions much more favorable. The penetrating action of the steam is not only more energetic, but the temperature at which sterilization is ordinarily accomplished is, as a rule, not destructive to the objects under treatment. This is conspicuously seen in the work of the laboratory; the culture media, composed in the main of decomposable organic materials that would be rendered entirely worthless if exposed to the dry method of sterilization, sustain no injury whatever when intelligently subjected to an equally effective sterilization with steam. The same may be said of cotton and woollen fabrics, bedding, clothing, etc.

Aside from the relations of the two methods to the materials to be sterilized, their action toward the organisms to be destroyed is quite different. The penetrating action of the steam renders it by far the more efficient agent of the two. The spores of several organisms which are killed by an exposure of but a few moments to the action of steam resist the destructive action of dry heat at a higher temperature for a much greater length of time.

WILLIAM

These differences will be strikingly brought out in the experimental work on this subject. For our purposes it is necessary to remember that the two methods have the following applications :

The dry method, at a temperature of 150° – 180° C., for one hour, is employed for the sterilization of glassware : flasks, test-tubes, culture dishes, pipettes, plates, etc.

The sterilization by steam is practised with all culture media, whether fluid or solid. Bouillon, milk, gelatin, agar-agar, potato, etc., are under no circumstances to be subjected to dry heat.

The way in which heat is employed in processes of sterilization varies with circumstances. In its employment as dry heat its application is always continuous—i. e., the objects to be sterilized are simply exposed to the proper temperature for the length of time necessary to destroy all living organisms which may be upon them. With the use of steam, on the other hand, the objects to be sterilized are frequently of such a nature that a prolonged application of the heat would materially injure them. For this and other reasons steam is usually applied intermittently and for short periods of time. The principles involved in this method of sterilization depend upon differences of resistance toward heat which the organisms to be destroyed are seen to possess at different stages of their development. During the life history of many of the bacilli there is a time in which the resistance of the organism toward the action of both chemical and thermal agents is much higher than at other stages of its development. This increased power of resistance is seen to exist when these organisms are in the *spore* or *resting stage*, to which reference has

tain spores that might have been present resist this treatment, providing the sterilization has not been continued for too long a time. If now the sterilization is discontinued, and the material which presents conditions favorable to the germination of the spores is allowed to stand for a time, usually for about twenty-four hours, at a temperature of from 30°–35° C., those spores which resisted the action of the steam will in the course of this interval germinate into the less resistant vegetative cells. A second short exposure to the steam kills these forms in turn, and by a repetition of this process all organisms which were present may be destroyed without the application of the steam having been of long duration at any time. In this process the usual plan is to subject the materials to be sterilized to the action of steam, under the normal conditions of temperature and pressure, for fifteen minutes on each of three successive days, and during the intervals to retain them at a temperature of about 25°–30° C. At the end of this time all living organisms which were present will have been destroyed, and unless opportunity is given for the access of new organisms from without, the substances thus treated remain sterile.

It must be borne in mind that this method of sterilization is only applicable in those cases which present conditions favorable to the germination of the spores into mature vegetative cells. Dry substances or organic materials in which decomposition is far advanced, where the conditions of nutrition favorable to the germination of spores are not present, cannot be successfully sterilized by the intermittent method.

The process of fractional sterilization at *low* temperatures is based upon exactly the same principle, but dif-

fers, in two respects, viz., it requires a greater number of exposures for its accomplishment, and the temperature at which it is conducted is not raised above 68°–70° C. It is employed for the sterilization of easily decomposable materials, which would be rendered useless by the temperature of steam, but which remain intact at the temperature employed. This process requires that the material to be sterilized should be subjected to a temperature of 68°–70° C. for one hour on each of six successive days, the interval of twenty-four hours between the exposures admitting of the germination of spores into mature cells. During this interval the substances under treatment are kept at about 25°–30° C. The temperature employed in this process suffices to destroy the vitality of almost all organisms in the vegetative stage in about one hour. Until recently blood-serum was always sterilized by the intermittent method at low temperature.

Sterilization by steam is also practised by what may be called the direct method. That is to say, both the mature organisms and the spores which may be present in the material to be sterilized are destroyed by a single exposure to the steam. In this method steam at its ordinary temperature and pressure—live steam or streaming steam as it is called—is employed just as in the first method described, but it is allowed to act for a much longer time, usually not less than one hour; or, steam under pressure, and consequently of a higher temperature, is now frequently employed. In this method a single exposure of fifteen minutes is sufficient for the destruction of all bacilli and their spores, providing the pressure of the steam is not less than one atmosphere over and above that of normal—this is approximately

equivalent to a temperature of 122° C. to which the organisms are exposed.

The objection to both of these methods of direct sterilization by steam is that many substances that it is desirable to retain in as near their normal condition as possible are materially altered by this energetic form of treatment. Gelatin is not only rendered cloudy, but often loses the power of gelatinizing. Many of the other media contain always a fine precipitate after this method; in fact, for most of the media which are employed the discontinued method at the temperature of streaming steam gives the most satisfactory results.

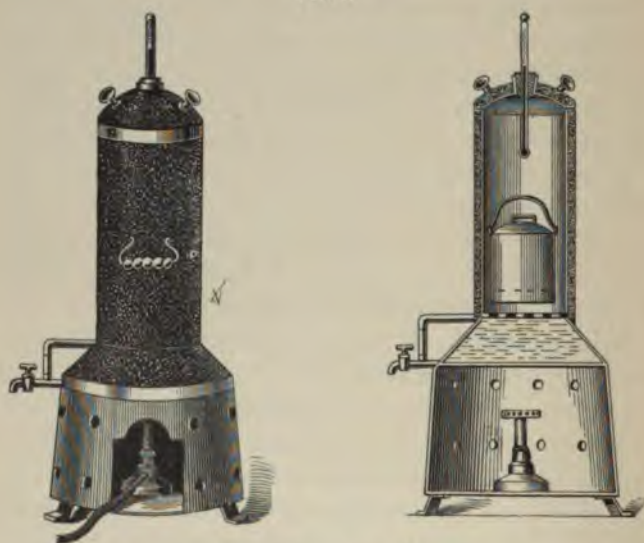
For sterilization by steam the apparatus commonly employed has, until recently, been the cylindrical boiler recommended by Koch. (See Fig. 8.)

Its construction is very simple. It consists of a copper cylinder, the lower fourth of which is somewhat larger in diameter than the remaining three-fourths, and acts as a reservoir for the water from which the steam is to be generated. Covering this section of the cylinder is a wire rack or grating through which the steam passes, and which serves as a bottom upon which the objects to be sterilized rest. Above this, comprising the remaining three-fourths of the cylinder, is the chamber for the reception of the materials over and through which the steam is to pass. The cylinder is closed by a snugly-fitting cover through which are usually two perforations into which a thermometer and a manometer may be inserted. The whole of the outer surface of the apparatus is encased in a non-conducting mantle of asbestos or felt.

The water is heated by a gas-flame placed in an enclosed chamber, upon which the apparatus rests, which

serves to diminish the loss of heat and deflection of the flame through the action of draughts. The apparatus is simple in construction, and the only point which is to be observed while using it is the level of the water in

FIG. 8.



Steam sterilizer, pattern of Koch.

the reservoir. On the reservoir is a water-gauge which indicates at all times the amount of water in the apparatus. The amount of water should never be too small to be indicated by the gauge, otherwise there is danger of the reservoir becoming dry and the bottom of the apparatus being destroyed by the direct action of the flame.

A sterilizer that has come into very general use in bacteriological laboratories is one originally intended for use in the kitchen. It is the so-called "Arnold

Steam Sterilizer." It is very ingenious in its construction as well as economical in its employment.

The difference between this apparatus and that just described is that it provides for the condensation of the steam after its escape from the sterilizing chamber, and returns the water of condensation automatically to the reservoir, so that in practice the apparatus requires but little attention, as with moderate care there is no fear of the water in the reservoir becoming exhausted and the consequent destruction of the sterilizer.

Fig. 9 shows a section through this apparatus.

FIG. 9.



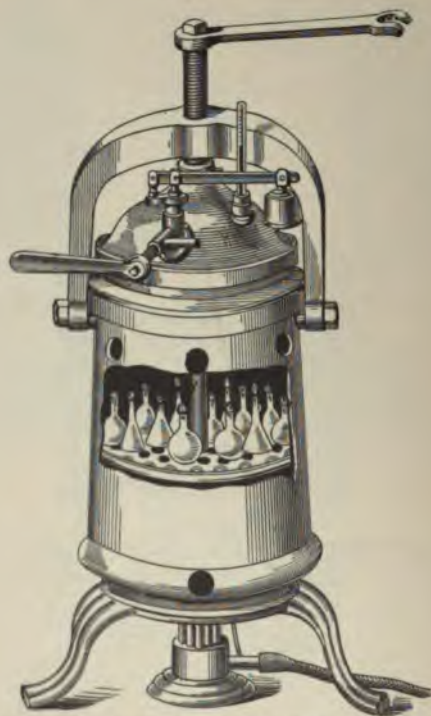
Arnold steam sterilizer.

STERILIZATION UNDER PRESSURE.

For sterilization by steam *under pressure* several special forms of apparatus exist. The principles involved in them all are, however, the same. They provide for the

generation of steam in a chamber from which it cannot escape when the apparatus is closed. Upon the cover of this chamber is a safety-valve, which can be regulated so that any degree of pressure (and coincidently of temperature) that is desirable can be maintained within the

FIG. 10.



Autoclave or digester for sterilizing by steam under pressure.

sterilizing chamber. These sterilizers are known as "digesters" and as "autoclaves." Their construction can best be understood by reference to Fig. 10.

STERILIZATION BY HOT AIR.

The hot-air sterilizers used in laboratories are simply double-walled boxes of Russian or Swedish iron (Fig. 11), having a double-walled door, which closes tightly, and a heavy copper bottom. They are arranged with ventilating openings for the escape of the contained air and the entrance of the heated air. The flame, usually from a rose burner (Fig. 12), is applied directly to the bottom. The heat circulates from the lower surface around about the apparatus through the space between its walls.

FIG. 11.



FIG. 12.



The construction of the copper bottom of the apparatus upon which the flame impinges is designed to prevent the direct action of the flame upon the sheet-iron bottom of the chamber. It consists of several

copper plates placed one above the other, but with a space of about 4 to 5 mm. between the plates. These copper bottoms after a time become burned out, and unless they are replaced the apparatus is useless. The older form of hot-air sterilizers are so constructed that their repair is a matter involving some time and expense. To meet this objection I have had constructed a sterilizer in all respects similar to the old form except in the arrangement of this copper bottom. This is so made that it can be easily slipped in and out, so that by keeping several sets of copper plates on hand a new one can readily be slipped into the apparatus when the old one is burned out.

In the employment of the hot-air sterilizer care should always be given to the condition of the copper bottom; for the direct application of the heat to the sheet-iron plate upon which the substances to be sterilized stand results not only in destruction of the apparatus, but frequently in destruction of the substances undergoing sterilization.

Since the temperature at which this form of sterilization is usually accomplished is high— 150° to 180° C.—it is well to have the apparatus encased in asbestos boards, to diminish the radiation of heat from its surfaces. This not only confines the heat to the apparatus, but guards against the destructive action of the radiated heat on woodwork, furniture, etc., that may be in the neighborhood.

CHEMICAL STERILIZATION AND DISINFECTION.

As has already been stated, it is possible by means of certain chemical substances to destroy all bacteria and their spores that may be within or upon various

materials and objects, *i. e.*, to sterilize them ; and it is also possible by the same means to rob infected objects of their dangerous infective properties without at the same time sterilizing them—*i. e.*, to disinfect them. This latter process depends upon the fact that the vitality of many of the less resistant pathogenic organisms is easily destroyed by an exposure to particular chemical substances, while a similar exposure may be without effect upon the more resistant saprophytes and their spores that are present.

The use of chemicals for sterilization is not to be considered in connection with substances that are to be employed as culture media, and their employment is restricted in the laboratory to materials that are of no further value and to infected articles that are not injured by the action of the agents used. In short, they are mainly of value in rendering infected waste materials free from danger. For the successful performance of this form of disinfection there is one fundamental rule always to be borne in mind, *viz.*, it is absolutely essential to success that the disinfectant used should come in direct contact with the bacteria to be destroyed, otherwise there is no disinfection.

For this reason, one should always remember, in selecting the disinfecting agent, the nature of the materials containing the bacteria upon which it is to act, for the majority of disinfectants, and particularly those of an inorganic nature, vary in the degree of their potency with the chemical nature of the mass to which they are applied. Often the materials containing the bacteria to be destroyed are of such a character that they combine with the disinfecting agent to form insoluble precipitates ; these so interfere with the penetration

of the disinfectant that many bacteria may escape its destructive action entirely and no disinfection be accomplished, though an agent might have been employed that would, under other circumstances, have given entirely satisfactory results.

In the destruction of bacteria by means of chemical substances, there occurs, most probably, a definite chemical reaction; that is to say, the characteristics of both the bacteria and the agent employed in their destruction are lost in the production of a third body, the result of their combination. It is impossible to say with absolute certainty, as yet, that this is the case, but the evidence that is rapidly accruing from the more recent studies upon disinfectants and their mode of action points strongly to the accuracy of this belief. This reaction, in which the typical structures of both bodies concerned is lost, takes place between the agent employed for disinfection and the protoplasm of the bacteria. For example, in the reaction that is seen to take place between the salts of mercury and albuminous bodies there results a third compound, which has neither the characteristics of mercury nor of albumin, but partakes of the peculiarities of both; it is a combination of albumin and mercury known by the indefinite term "albuminate of mercury." Some such reaction as this occurs when the soluble salts of mercury are brought in contact with bacteria. This view has recently been strengthened by the experiments of Geppert, in which the reaction was caused to take place between the spores of the anthrax bacillus and a solution of mercuric chloride, the result being the apparent destruction of the living properties of the spores by the formation of this third compound. In these experiments it was shown that though this com-

bination had taken place, still it did not of necessity imply the complete death of the protoplasm of the spores, for if by proper means the combination of mercury with their protoplasm was broken up, many of the spores returned from their condition of apparent death to that of life, with all their previous disease-producing and cultural peculiarities. Geppert employed a solution of ammonium sulphide for the purpose of destroying the combination of spore-protoplasm and mercury; the mercury was precipitated from the protoplasm as an insoluble sulphide, and the protoplasm of the spores returned to its original condition. These and other somewhat similar experiments have given an entirely new impulse to the study of disinfectants, and in the light shed by them many of our previously formed ideas concerning the action of disinfecting agents must be modified. The process is not a catalytic one—i. e., occurring simply as a result of the presence of the disinfecting body which is not itself destroyed in its process of destruction—but is, as said, a definite chemical reaction which takes place within certain more or less fixed limits; that is to say, with a given amount of the disinfectant employed, just so much work, expressed in terms of disinfection—destruction of bacteria—can be accomplished.

Another point in favor of this view is the increased energy of the reaction with elevation of temperature. Just as in many other chemical phenomena, the intensity of the reaction becomes greater under the influence of heat, so in the process of disinfection the combination between the disinfectant and the organisms to be destroyed is much more energetic at a temperature of 37° to 39° C. than it is at 12° to 15° C.

What has been said refers more particularly to the inorganic salts which are employed for this purpose. It is probable that the organic bodies which possess disinfectant properties owe this power to some such similar reaction, though, as yet, these substances have not been so thoroughly studied in this relation.

The reaction between these inorganic salts and albuminous bodies is not a selective action; they combine in most instances with any or all protoplasmic bodies present. For this reason the results of the practical application of many of the commonly employed disinfectants is a matter of grave doubt. For example, the disinfection of excreta, sputum, or blood containing pathogenic organisms, by means of corrosive sublimate, is a procedure of very questionable success. The amount of sublimate employed may be entirely used up and rendered inactive as a disinfectant by the ordinary protoplasmic substances present without having any appreciable effect upon the bacteria which may be in the mass.

These remarks are introduced in order to guard against the implicit confidence so often placed in the disinfecting value of corrosive sublimate. In bacteriological laboratories, where there is constantly more or less of infectious material, it is the custom, with few exceptions, to have vessels containing solutions of corrosive sublimate at hand, by which infectious materials may be rendered harmless. The value of this procedure, as we have just learned, is always more or less questionable, especially in those cases in which the substance to be disinfected is of an albuminous nature. With the introduction of such substances into the sublimate solution the mercury is quickly precipitated by

the albumin and its disinfecting properties may be entirely destroyed ; we may in a very short time have little else than water containing a precipitate of albumin and mercury, in so far as its value as a disinfectant is concerned.

Though the other inorganic salts have not been so thoroughly studied in this connection, it is nevertheless probable that the same precautions should be taken in their employment as we now know to be necessary in the use of the salts of mercury.

Where it is desirable to use chemical disinfectants in the laboratory, much more satisfactory results can usually be obtained through the employment of carbolic acid in solution. A 3 or 4 per cent. solution of commercial carbolic acid in water requires a somewhat longer time for disinfection of such resistant objects as the spores of the bacillus anthracis, but it is at the same time open to fewer objections than are solutions of the inorganic salts. For less resistant organisms its action is usually complete in from twenty minutes to one-half hour.

In the laboratory heat is the surest agent to employ. All tissues containing infectious organisms should be *burned*, and all cloths, test-tubes, flasks, and dishes should be boiled in 2 per cent. soda solution for fifteen to twenty minutes, or placed in the steam sterilizer for half an hour.

Intestinal evacuations may best be disinfected with *milk of lime*, a mixture composed of lime in solution and in suspension, ordinary fluid "white-wash." This should be thoroughly mixed with the evacuations until the mass reacts distinctly alkaline, and should remain in contact with the infective substance for one or two hours.

Sputum in which tubercle bacilli are present, as well as the vessel containing it, must be boiled in soda solution for fifteen minutes or steamed in the sterilizer for at least half an hour.

On the whole, in the laboratory we should as yet rely more upon the destructive properties of heat than upon that of chemical agents.

From what has been said, the absurdity of sprinkling about, here and there, a little carbolic acid or in placing about apartments in which infectious diseases are in progress little vessels of carbolic acid, must be plain. The disinfection of water-closets and cesspools by allowing now and then a few cubic centimetres of some so-called disinfectant to trickle through the pipes is absurd. A disinfectant must be *applied to the bacteria, and must be in contact with them for a long enough time to insure the destruction of their life.*

In the light of the latest experiments upon disinfectants, the place formerly occupied by many agents in the list of substances employed for the purpose will most likely be changed as they are studied more closely.

The agents, then, which will prove of most value in the laboratory for the purpose of rendering infectious materials harmless are: *Heat*, either by burning, by steaming for from half an hour to an hour, or by boiling in a 2 per cent. soda solution for fifteen minutes; a solution of *chlorinated lime* ("chloride of lime"), in which the percentage of chlorine is high; 3 to 4 per cent. solution of commercial carbolic acid; and *milk of lime*. The materials to be disinfected in either of the lime solutions should remain in them for about two hours. The solutions should be freshly prepared when needed, as they rapidly decompose upon standing.

Antiseptic. An antiseptic is a body which, by its presence, prevents the growth of bacteria without of necessity killing them. A body may be an antiseptic without possessing disinfecting properties to any very high degree, but a disinfectant is always an antiseptic as well.



CHAPTER IV.

Principles involved in the methods of isolation of bacteria in pure culture by the plate method of Koch—Materials employed.

As was stated in the introductory chapter, the isolation in pure cultures of the different species of bacteria from mixtures of these organisms was rendered possible only through the methods suggested by Koch. Since the adoption of these methods they have undergone many modifications, but the principle involved has remained unaltered. The observation which led to their development was a very simple one, and one that is commonly before us. Koch noticed that on solid substances, such, for example, as a slice of potato or of bread, which had been exposed for a time to the air and which afforded proper nourishment for the lower organisms, there developed after a short time small patches of material which proved to be colonies of bacteria. Each of these colonies on closer examination showed itself to be, as a rule, composed of but a single species. There was no tendency on the part of these colonies to become confluent, and from the differences in their naked-eye appearances it was easy to see that they were mostly the outgrowth of different species of bacteria.

The question that then presented itself was: If from a mixture of organisms floating in the air it is possible in this way to obtain in pure cultures the individual organisms composing the mixture, what means can be employed for obtaining the same results *at will* from mixtures of different organisms when found under other conditions?

It was plain that the organisms were to be distinguished, the one from the other, only by the structure and general appearance of the colonies growing from them, for by their morphology alone this is impossible.

What means could be devised, then, for separating the individual members of a mixture in such a way that they would remain in a fixed position, and be so widely separated, the one from the other, as not to interfere with the production of colonies of characteristic appearance, which would, under the proper conditions, develop from each individual cell?

If one takes in the hand a mixture of barley, rye, corn, oats, etc., and attempts to separate the mass into its constituents by picking out the different grains, much difficulty is experienced; but if the handful of grain be thrown upon a large flat surface, as upon a table, the grains become more widely separated and the task is considerably simplified; or, if sown upon proper soil the various grains will develop into growths of entirely different external appearance by which they can readily be recognized as unlike in nature. Similarly, if a test-tube of decomposed bouillon be poured out upon a large flat surface, the individual bacteria in the mass are very much more widely separated the one from the other than they were when the bouillon was in the tube; but they are in a fluid medium, and there is no possibility of their either remaining separated or of their forming colonies under these conditions, so that it is impossible by this means to pick out the individuals from the mixture.

If, however, it is possible to find some substance which possesses the property of being at one time fluid and at another time solid, which can be added to this bouillon without in any way interfering with the life-

functions of the bacteria, then, as solidification sets in, the organisms will be fixed in their positions and the conditions will be analogous to that seen on the bit of potato.

Gelatin possesses this property. At a temperature which does not interfere with the life of the organisms it is quite fluid, whereas when subjected to a lower temperature it solidifies. When once solid it may be kept at a temperature favorable to the growth of the bacteria and retain its solid condition.

Gelatin was added to the fluids containing mixtures of bacteria, and the whole was then poured upon a large flat surface, allowed to solidify, and the results noted. It was found that the conditions seen on the slice of potato could be reproduced, that the individuals in the mixture of bacteria grew well in the gelatin, and, as on the potato, grew in colonies of typical macroscopic structure, so that they could easily be distinguished the one from the other by their naked-eye appearances. It was necessary, however, to use a more dilute mixture of bacteria than that seen in the original decomposed bouillon. The number of individuals in the tube was so enormous that on the gelatin plate they were so closely packed together that it was not only impossible to pick them out because of their proximity the one to the other, but also because this packing together materially interfered with the production of those characters by means of which differences can be seen with the naked eye. The numbers of organisms were then diminished by a process of dilution, consisting of transferring a small portion of the original mixture into a second tube of sterilized bouillon to which gelatin had been added and liquefied; from this a similar portion was added to a

third gelatin-bouillon tube, and so on. These were then poured upon large surfaces and allowed to solidify. The results were entirely satisfactory. On the gelatin plates from the original tube, as was expected, the colonies were too numerous to be of any use; on the plates made from the first dilution they were much fewer in number, but still they were usually too numerous and too closely packed to permit of characteristic growth; but on the second dilution they were, as a rule, fewer in number and widely separated, so that the individuals of each species were in no way prevented by the proximity of its neighbors from growing in its own typical way. There was then no difficulty in picking out the colonies resulting from the growth of the different individual bacteria.

Such, then, is the principle underlying Koch's method for the isolation of bacteria by means of solid media.

The fundamental part of the media employed is the bouillon, which contains all the elements necessary for the nutrition of most bacteria, the gelatin being employed simply for the purpose of rendering the bouillon solid. The medium on which the organisms are growing is, therefore, simply solidified bouillon, or beef tea.

In practice, two forms of gelatin are employed—the one an animal or bone gelatin, the ordinary table gelatin of good quality; and the other a vegetable gelatin, known as agar-agar, or Japanese gelatin, which is obtained from a group of algæ growing in the sea along the coast of Japan, where it is employed as an article of diet by the natives.

Aside from these differences in origin of the two forms of gelatin employed, their behavior toward heat and toward bacteria renders them of different application

in bacteriological work. The animal gelatin liquefies at a much lower temperature, and likewise solidifies at a very much lower temperature, than does the agar-agar. Ordinary gelatin, in the proportion commonly used in this work, liquefies at about 24° C., and becomes solid at from 8° – 10° C. It may be employed for those organisms which do not require a higher temperature for their development than 22° C. Agar-agar, on the other hand, does not liquefy until the temperature has reached about 98° – 99° C. It remains fluid ordinarily until the temperature has fallen to 38° – 39° C., when it rapidly solidifies. For our purposes, only that form of agar-agar can be used which remains fluid at from 38° – 40° C. Agar-agar which remains fluid only at a temperature above this point would be too hot, when in a fluid state, for use; many of the organisms which would be introduced into it would either be destroyed or checked in their development by so high a temperature. Agar-agar, therefore, is for use in those cases in which the cultivation must be conducted at a temperature above that at which gelatin remains solid.

In addition to the differences toward temperature, the relations of these two gelatins to bacteria are different. Many bacteria bring about alterations in gelatin which cause it to become liquid (a process of peptonization), in which state it remains. There are no known organisms that bring about such a change in agar-agar.

As a rule, the colony-formations seen upon gelatin are much more characteristic than those which develop on agar-agar, and for this reason gelatin is to be preferred when circumstances will permit. Both gelatin and agar-agar may be used in the preparation of plates and Esmarch tubes, subsequently to be described.

CHAPTER V.

Preparation of media—Bouillon, gelatin, agar-agar, potato, blood-serum, etc.

As has been stated, the fundamental part of our culture media is beef tea, or bouillon.

BOUILLON.—The formula of Koch for the preparation of this medium has undergone many modifications to meet special cases, but for general use his original formula is still retained. It is as follows: Five hundred grammes of finely-chopped lean beef, free from fat and tendons, is to be soaked in one litre of water for twenty-four hours. During this time it is to remain in the ice-chest or to be otherwise kept at a low temperature. It is then to be strained through a coarse towel and pressed until a litre of fluid is obtained. To this is to be added ten grammes (1.0 per cent.) of dried peptone and five grammes (0.5 per cent.) of common salt (NaCl). It is then to be rendered exactly neutral or very slightly alkaline, with a few drops of saturated soda solution. The flask containing the mixture is then to be placed either in the steam sterilizer or in a water-bath, or over a free flame, and kept at the boiling-point until all the albumin is coagulated, and the fluid portion is of a clear, pale, straw-color. It is then filtered through a folded paper filter, and sterilized in the steam sterilizer by the fractional method. Certain of the modifications of this method are of sufficient value to justify mention. Most important is the neutralization. Ordinarily, this is accomplished with the saturated soda solution, and

the reaction is determined with the ordinary red and blue litmus paper.

Soda solution is not so good as a strong solution of caustic soda or potash, because the carbonic acid liberated from the sodium carbonate is frequently seen to give rise to a confusing temporary acid reaction which disappears on heating. To obviate this, Schultz (*Centralbl. f. Bakt. u. Parasitenkunde*, Bd. x., Nos. 2 and 3, 1891) recommends exact titration with a solution of caustic soda. For this purpose a 4 per cent. solution of caustic soda is prepared. From this a 0.4 per cent. solution is made, and with it the titration is practised. After the bouillon has been deprived of all coagulable albumin and blood-coloring matter by boiling and filtration, and has cooled down to the temperature of the air, its whole volume is exactly measured.

From it a sample of exactly 5 or 10 c.c. is then taken, and to it a few drops of one of the indicators commonly employed in analytical work is added. Schultz recommends 1 drop of phenolphthalein solution (1 gramme phenolphthalein in 300 c.c. of alcohol) to 1 c.c. of bouillon. The beaker containing the sample is placed upon white paper, and the dilute caustic soda solution is then allowed to drop into it, very slowly, from a burette, until there appears a very delicate rose color, which indicates the beginning of alkaline reaction. A second sample of the bouillon is treated in the same way. If the amounts of soda solution required for each sample deviate but very slightly or not at all the one from the other, the mean of these amounts is taken as the amount of the soda solution necessary to neutralize the quantity of bouillon employed. If 10 c.c. of bouillon were employed, then, for the whole amount

of 1 litre, just 100 times as much, minus that for the two samples used in titration, will be needed. For example: To neutralize 10 c.c. of bouillon, 2 c.c. of the diluted (0.4 per cent.) caustic soda solution were employed. For the remaining 980 c.c. of the litre of bouillon, then, 196 c.c. (200 c.c.—4 c.c., the amount employed for the two samples of 10 c.c. each of bouillon) is needed of the 0.4 per cent. solution, or one-tenth of this amount of the 4 per cent. solution.

For the neutralization of the whole bulk of the bouillon it is better to employ the strong alkaline solution, as by its use the volume is not increased to so great an extent as when the dilute solution is used.

It is evident that this method is much more exact than that ordinarily employed, but at the same time it must be remembered that for its success it requires exactness in the measurement of the volumes and the preparation of the dilutions. To obviate error, it is better to employ this method when the solutions are all cool and of nearly the same temperature, so that rapid fluctuations in temperature, and consequent alterations in volume, will not materially interfere with the accuracy of the results.

This method of neutralization, which is employed by Schultz, is to be recommended for those experiments in which slight inaccuracies in the reaction of the media play an important part.

For the ordinary purposes of the beginner, however, results quite satisfactory in their nature may be obtained by the employment of the saturated soda solution for neutralization and the litmus paper as the indicator. For some time, however, it has been our practice to

employ the yellow curcuma paper for the detection of alkalinity rather than the red litmus paper.

Not infrequently the filtered bouillon, neutralized and sterilized, will be seen to contain a fine, flocculent precipitate. This may be due either to excess of alkalinity or to incomplete precipitation of the albumin. The former may be corrected with dilute acetic or hydrochloric acid, and the bouillon again boiled, filtered, and sterilized; or, if due to the latter cause, subsequent boiling and filtration usually results in ridding the bouillon of the precipitate.

Another modification now generally employed is the use of meat extracts instead of the infusion of meat. Almost any of the meat extracts of commerce answer the purpose, though we usually prefer Liebig's. It is employed in the strength of from two to four grammes to the litre of water. Peptone and sodium chloride are added as in the bouillon made from the meat infusion. The advantage of this method is that it takes less time than when the infusion of meat is used, affords a solution of more uniform composition if used in fixed proportions, and for general use it answers just as well.

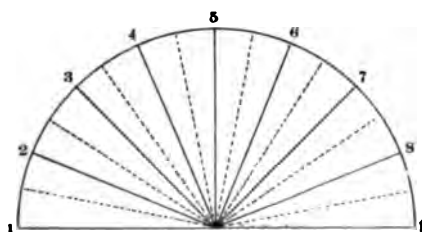
NUTRIENT GELATIN.—For the preparation of gelatin the bouillon is first prepared in exactly the same way as has just been described, except that the neutralization takes place after the gelatin has been completely dissolved, which occurs very rapidly in hot bouillon. The reaction of the gelatin as it comes from the manufacturing is usually quite acid, so that a much larger amount of alkali is needed for its neutralization than for other media. The gelatin is added in the proportion of 10 to 12 per cent. The complete solution of the gelatin may be accomplished either over the water-

bath, in the steam sterilizer, or over a free flame. If the latter method is practised, care must be taken that the mixture is constantly stirred to prevent burning at the bottom and consequent breaking of the flask, if a flask is employed.

For some time it has been our practice to use, for the purpose of making both gelatin and agar-agar, enamelled iron saucepans instead of glass flasks; by this means the free flame may be employed without danger of breaking the vessel, and, with a little care, without fear of burning the media. Under any conditions it is better to protect the bottom of the vessel from the direct action of the flame by the interposition of several layers of wire gauze, a thin sheet of asbestos-board, or an ordinary cast-iron stove-plate.

When the gelatin is completely melted, it may be filtered through a folded paper filter on an ordinary funnel; if the solution is perfect, this should be very quickly accomplished.

FIG. 13.

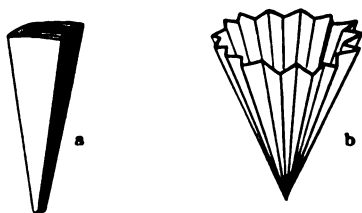


For the filtration of such substances as gelatin and agar-agar it is of much importance to have a properly folded filter. To fold a filter correctly, proceed as follows: A circular piece of filter paper is folded exactly through its centre, forming the fold 1, 1 (Fig. 13); the

end 1 is then folded over to 1', forming the fold 5; 1 and 1' are each then brought to 5, thus forming the folds 3 and 7; 1 is then carried to the point 7, and the fold 4 is formed, and by carrying 1' to 3 the fold 6 is produced; and by bringing 1 to 3 and 1' to 7 the folds 2 and 8 result.

Thus far the ridges of all folds are on the side of the paper next to the table on which we are folding. The paper is now taken up, and each space between the seams just produced is to be subdivided by a seam or fold through its centre, as indicated by the dotted lines in Fig. 13, but with the creases on the side *opposite* to

FIG. 14.



that occupied by the creases 1, 2, 3, 4, etc., first made. As each of these folds is made the paper is gradually folded into a wedge-shaped bundle (Fig. 14, *a*), which, when opened, assumes the form of a properly folded filter seen in *b*, Fig. 14. Before placing it upon the funnel it is well to go over each crease again and see that it is as tightly folded as possible, without tearing it. The advantage of the folded filter is that by its use a much greater filtering surface is obtained, as it is in contact with the funnel only at the points formed by the ridges, leaving the majority of the flat surface free for filtration.

The employment of the hot-water funnel, so often recommended, has been dispensed with in this work to a very large extent, as we know that, if the solution of the gelatin is complete, filtration is so rapid as not to necessitate the use of an apparatus for maintaining the high temperature. The temperature at which the hot-water funnel retains the gelatin is so high that evaporation and concentration rapidly occur, and in consequence the filtration is, as a rule, retarded. The filtration is frequently done in the steam sterilizer, but this too is unnecessary if the gelatin is quite dissolved. At the ordinary temperature of the room and by the means commonly employed for the filtration of other substances, both gelatin and agar-agar may be rapidly filtered if they are completely dissolved.

It not infrequently occurs that, even under the most careful treatment, the filtered gelatin is not perfectly transparent (the condition in which it must exist, otherwise it is useless), and clarification becomes necessary. For this purpose the mass must be redissolved, and when at a temperature between 60° C. and 70° C., the whites of two eggs, which have been beaten up with about 50 c.c. of water, are added. The whole is then thoroughly mixed together and again brought to the boiling-point, and kept at this point until coagulation of the albumin occurs. It is better not to break up the large masses of coagulated albumin if it can be avoided, as when broken up into fine flakes they clog the filter and materially retard filtration.

The practice sometimes recommended of removing these albuminous masses by first filtering the gelatin through a cloth, and then finally through paper, is not only superfluous, but in most instances renders the pro-

cess of filtration much more difficult, because of the disintegration of these masses into the finer particles, which have the effect just mentioned.

Under no circumstances is a filter to be used without first having been moistened with water. If this is not done, the pores of the paper, which are relatively large when in a dry state, when moistened by the gelatin not only diminish in size, but in contracting are often entirely occluded by the finer albuminous flakes which become fixed within them, and filtration practically ceases. The preliminary moistening with water causes the diminution of the size of the pores to such an extent that the finer particles of the precipitate rest on the surface of the paper, instead of becoming fixed in its meshes.

During boiling it is well to filter, from time to time, a few cubic centimetres of the gelatin into a test-tube and boil it over a free flame for a minute or so; in this way one can detect if all the albumin has been coagulated and when the solution is ready for filtration.

Gelatin should not, as a rule, be boiled over ten or fifteen minutes at one time, or left in the steam sterilizer for more than thirty to forty-five minutes, otherwise its property of solidifying is materially diminished.

As soon as the gelatin is complete, whether it is retained in the flask into which it has been filtered or decanted off into sterilized test-tubes, it should be sterilized in the steam sterilizer on three successive days, for fifteen minutes each day—the mouth of the flask or the test-tubes containing it having been previously closed with cotton plugs.

NUTRIENT AGAR-AGAR.—The preparation of nutrient agar-agar by the beginner is, as a rule, a some-

what tedious and time-taking experience. This is owing mainly to lack of patience and failure to adhere strictly to the rules laid down for the preparation of this medium. Many methods are recommended for its preparation ; almost every worker has some slight modification of his own.

The methods that have given us the best results, and from which there are no grounds for deviating, are as follows :

Prepare the bouillon in the usual way. Agar-agar reacts neutral, so that the bouillon may be neutralized before the agar is added. Then add finely-chopped agar in the proportion of 1 to 1.5 per cent. Place the mixture in a porcelain-lined iron vessel and make a mark on the sides of the vessel at which the level of the fluid stands, add about 250 c.c. to 300 c.c. of water and allow the mass to boil slowly, occasionally stirring, over a free flame, for from one and one-half to two hours. Care must be taken that it does not boil over the sides of the vessel. From time to time observe if the fluid has fallen below the mark of its original level ; if it has, add water until its original volume is restored. At the end of the time given remove the flame and place the vessel containing the mixture in a large dish of cold water ; stir the agar continuously until it has cooled down to about 68°-70° C., and then add the whites of two eggs which have been beaten up in about 50 c.c. of water ; or the ordinary dried albumin of commerce may be dissolved in cold water in the proportion of about 10 per cent., and used. The results are equally as good as where eggs are used. Mix this carefully throughout the agar, and allow the mass to boil slowly for about another half-hour, observing all the while the

level of the fluid. It is necessary to reduce the temperature of the mass to the point given, 68°-70° C., otherwise the coagulation of the albumin will occur in lumps and masses as soon as it is added, and its clearing action will not be homogeneous. The process is a purely mechanical one—the finer particles, which would otherwise pass through the pores of the filter, being taken up by the albumin as it coagulates and retained in the coagula.

At the end of one-half hour the boiling mass may be easily and quickly filtered through a heavy, folded paper filter at the room temperature, and, as a rule, the filtrate is as clear and as transparent as agar-agar usually appears.

Another plan that insures complete solution of the agar without causing the precipitates that are commonly seen when all the ingredients are added at first and boiled for a long time, is to weigh out the necessary amount of agar-agar, 10 or 15 grains, and place this in 1300 or 1400 c.c. of water and boil down over a free flame to 1000 c.c. The peptone, salt, and beef-extract are then added and the boiling again continued until they are dissolved. The clarification with egg albumen may then be done, and usually the mass filters quite clear and does not show the presence of precipitates upon cooling. If the mixture is positively alkaline, it is not only cloudy but it filters with difficulty; if it is acid, it is usually quite clear; but, as Schultz has pointed out, it loses at the same time some of its gelatinizing properties. The bouillon should always be neutralized before the agar-agar is added to it, for if the bouillon be acid, from the acid of the meat, it robs the agar, under the influence of heat, of some of

its gelatinizing powers, which cannot be regained by subsequent neutralization.

Another method by which the agar-agar can easily and quickly be melted, is by steam under pressure. If the flask containing the mixture of bouillon and agar be kept in the digester or autoclav, with the steam under a pressure of one-half to one atmosphere, as shown by the gauge, for ten minutes, the agar-agar will be found at the end of this time completely melted, and filtration may then be accomplished with but little difficulty.

If glycerin is to be added to the agar-agar, it is done after filtration and before sterilization. The nutritive properties of the media for certain organisms, particularly the tubercle bacillus, is improved by the addition of glycerin in the proportion of 5 to 7 per cent.

If after filtration a fine flocculent precipitate is seen, look to the reaction of the medium. If it is quite alkaline, neutralize, boil, and filter again. If the reaction is neutral or only very slightly acid, dissolve and clarify again with egg albumin by the method given.

The most important point in all the media, aside from the correct proportion of the ingredients, is their reaction. They must be neutral or very slightly alkaline. But few organisms develop well on media of an acid reaction. In all of the above media the meat extracts now on the market may usually be substituted for the meat itself in preparing the bouillon. In this case the preparation known as Liebig's Meat Extract may be employed in the proportion of from two to four grammes to the litre of water.

PREPARATION OF POTATOES.—Potatoes are prepared for use in two ways:

1. They are taken as they come to the market—old potatoes being usually recommended, and carefully scrubbed under the water-tap with a stiff brush until all adherent dirt has been removed; “the eyes” and all discolored or decayed parts are carefully removed with a pointed knife. They are then to be placed in a solution of corrosive sublimate of the strength of 1 : 1000 and allowed to remain there for twenty minutes; at the end of this time, without rinsing off the sublimate, they are placed in a covered tin bucket with a perforated bottom and sterilized in the steam sterilizer for forty-five minutes. On the second and third days the sterilization is repeated for fifteen to twenty minutes each day. They must not be removed from the sterilizing bucket until sterilization is complete. At the end of this time they are ready for use. When prepared in this way, they are usually intended to be cut into two halves, and the cultivation of the organisms is to be conducted upon the flat surfaces of the sections.

This method requires some care to prevent contamination during manipulation. The hand which is to take up the potato from the bucket, which until now has remained covered, is first disinfected in the sublimate solution for ten minutes, the potato is then taken up between the thumb and index finger, and severed into two by a knife which has just been sterilized in the free flame until it is quite hot. The blade of the knife is passed not quite through the potato, but nearly so. A large glass culture-dish for the reception of the two halves of the potato having been disinfected for twenty minutes with 1 : 1000 sublimate solution and then drained of all the adherent solution, is at hand ready for the bits of potato; the cover is removed, and

by twisting the knife gently the two halves of the potato may be caused to fall apart in the dish and usually to fall upon their convex surfaces, leaving the flat sections uppermost. The cover is placed upon the dish and the potatoes are ready for inoculation.

2. *Preparation of potatoes for test-tube cultures. Method of Bolton.*¹ If the potatoes are to be employed for test-tube cultures, one simply scrubs off the coarser particles of dirt with water and a brush, and with a cork-borer punches out cylindrical bits of potato which will fit loosely into the test-tubes to be used.

On each bit of potato is then to be cut a slanting surface running diagonally from about the junction of the first and second third of the cylinder to the diagonally opposite end. These cylinders of potato are now to be left in running water over night, otherwise they are very much discolored by the sterilization to which they are to be subjected. At the end of this time they are placed in previously prepared test-tubes, one piece in each tube, with the slanting surface up, the cotton plugs of the tubes replaced, and they are then to be sterilized in the steam for forty-five minutes. On the second and third days they are to be sterilized for fifteen to twenty minutes each day.

The entire sterilization may be accomplished in the autoclave with the steam under a pressure of one atmosphere, by a single exposure of twenty

FIG. 15.



Potato in test-tube.

¹ Medical News, 1887, vol. i. p. 138.

to twenty-five minutes. When finished they have the appearance seen in Fig. 15, except that there is no growth upon the surface as is shown in the cut.

Care must be given to the sterilization of potatoes, because they always have adhering to them the organisms commonly found in the ground, the spores of which are among the most resistant of all known organisms. The so-called "potato bacillus" is one of this group; it is an organism which not infrequently is more or less of an obstacle to the work of the beginner.

BLOOD-SERUM.—Blood-serum requires special care in its preparation; it is desirable under all conditions to reduce the unavoidable contamination, which to a certain extent occurs during manipulation, to its minimum degree.

It is possible to collect serum from small animals and in small quantities under such precautions that it is perhaps not contaminated, but ordinarily for laboratory purposes a larger quantity is needed, so that the slaughter-houses form the sources from which it is usually obtained, and here a certain amount of contamination is unavoidable, though its degree may be limited by proper precaution. The animal from which the blood is to be collected should be drawn up to the ceiling by the hind legs, the head should be held well back, and with one pass of a very sharp knife the throat should be completely cut through. The blood which will be spurting from the severed vessels should be collected in large glass jars which have been previously cleaned, disinfected, and all traces of the disinfectant removed with alcohol and finally ether. The latter evaporates very quickly and leaves the jar quite dry.

The jars should be provided with covers which close hermetically—these too should be carefully disinfected. The best form of glass vessels for the purpose are the large glass museum jars of about one gallon capacity, which close by a cover that can be tightly screwed down upon a rubber joint. From two such jarfuls of blood one can recover quite a large quantity of clear serum, ordinarily from 500–700 c.c. The jars having been filled with blood, their covers are placed loosely upon them and they are allowed to stand for about fifteen minutes until clotting has begun. At the end of this time a clean glass rod is passed around the edges of the surface of the clot to break up any adhesions to the wall of the jar that might have formed, and which would prevent the sinking of the clot to the bottom. The covers are then tightly replaced, and with as little agitation as possible the jars are placed in an ice-chest, where they remain for twenty-four to forty-eight hours. The temperature should, however, not be low enough to prevent coagulation, but should be sufficiently low to interfere with the development of any living organisms that may be present. The temperature of the ordinary domestic refrigerator is sufficient for the purpose. After twenty-four to forty-eight hours the clot will have become firm, and will be seen at the bottom of the jar. Above it is a quantity of dark straw-colored serum. The serum may then be drawn off with a sterilized pipette and placed in tall cylinders that have previously been plugged with cotton wadding and sterilized. After treating all the serum in this way, care having been taken to get as little of the coloring matter of the blood as possible, it may be placed again in the ice-chest for twenty-four hours during which time the

corpuscular elements will sink to the bottom, leaving the supernatant fluid quite clear. This may then be pipetted off, either into sterilized test-tubes, about 8 c.c. to each tube, or into small sterilized flasks of about 100 c.c. capacity. It is then to be sterilized by the intermittent method *at low temperatures*, viz., for one hour on each of five consecutive days at a temperature of 68° – 70° C. During the intervening days it is to be kept at the room temperature to permit of the development of any spores that may be present in their vegetative forms, in which condition they are killed by an hour's exposure to the temperature of 70° C.

FIG. 16.



Chamber for sterilizing and solidifying blood-serum. (Кочн.)

At the end of this time the serum in the tubes may either be retained as fluid serum or solidified at between 76° – 80° C. In solidifying the serum the tubes should be placed in an inclined position so that as great a surface as possible may be given to the serum. The

process of solidification requires constant attention if good results are to be obtained, *i. e.*, if a translucent, solid medium is to result. If the old, small form of apparatus is employed (Fig. 16), then the solidification can be accomplished in a shorter time than if the larger forms, which are now frequently employed, are used. No definite rule for the time that will be required can be laid down, for this is not constant. If the small solidifying apparatus is used, very good results may be obtained in about two hours at 78° C. It frequently requires a longer time at a higher temperature than has been mentioned. This is especially the case with Löffler's serum mixture.

The best results are obtained when a low temperature is employed for a long time. Under any circumstances the tubes must be observed from time to time through the glass door or cover with which the solidifying oven is provided, and each time the oven should be slightly jarred with the hand to see if solidification, as indicated by the disappearance of tremors from the serum, is beginning. If the temperature gets too high, or the exposure is too long, an opaque medium results. The temperature to be observed is that of the air inside the chamber, and also that of the water surrounding it. The latter is usually a degree or two higher than the former. The tubes should not rest directly upon the heated bottom or against the heated sides of the chamber, but should lie upon racks of wood or wire, and be protected from the sides by a wire screen of gauze; in this way the tubes are all exposed to about the same temperature. The thermometer which indicates the temperature inside the chamber should not touch the surfaces, but should either be suspended free from above

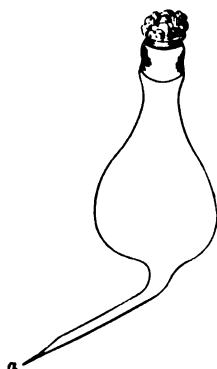
through a cork in the top of the apparatus, if the large form of apparatus is used; or should lie upon a rack of cork or wood, its bulb being free and a little lower than the other extremity, if the small, old-fashioned apparatus of Koch is employed. The latter form is preferable, as it is more easily managed.

When solidification is complete, the tubes are to be retained in the erect position and, unless they are intended for immediate use, must be prevented from drying. The superfluous ends of the cotton plugs should be burned off, and the mouths of the tubes may then be covered by sterilized rubber caps, or, as Ghiskey suggests, they may be closed with sterilized corks pushed in on top of the cotton plugs. Even with the greatest care it not uncommonly happens that one or two of the lot of tubes thus prepared and protected will become contaminated. This is usually due to spores of moulds that have fallen into the rubber caps or on the cotton plugs during manipulation, and, finding no means of outward growth, have thrown their hyphæ downward through the cotton into the tube, and their spores have fallen on the surface of the serum and developed there.

It is often desirable to obtain blood-serum in small quantities, either for culture purposes or for the study of the serum of different animals in its relation to bacteria, and for this purpose Nuttall (*Centralbl. Bakt. u. Parasitenkunde*, 1892, Bd. xi. p. 539) suggests a very convenient method. By the use of a sterilized vessel, of the shape given in Fig. 17, from ten to one hundred cubic centimetres of blood can be collected, and if proper precautions are observed no contamination by bacteria need occur. The collecting bulb is used in the following way: An artery, either femoral or carotid, is

exposed, and around it two ligatures are placed; that distant from the heart is tightened, while the one nearest the heart is left loose; between the latter and the heart the artery is clamped. A small slit is then made in its wall, into which the point *a* of the bulb is introduced and the artery bound tightly around it with the hitherto loose ligature; the clamp is removed and the

FIG. 17.



Nuttall's bulb for collecting blood-serum under antiseptic precautions.

bulb quickly fills with blood. The clamp is now again put in position, the point of the bulb removed and sealed in the gas-flame, the loose ligature tightened, the wound closed, and the vessel containing the blood is set aside in a cool place until coagulation has occurred. The serum is most easily withdrawn from the bulb by means of a pipette, closed above with a cotton plug and supplied with a bit of rubber tubing about one-half metre long with glass mouth-piece. By holding the pipette in the hand and sucking upon the rubber tube one can more easily direct the point of the pipette than if it is used in the ordinary way.

The bulbs are easily blown, and after having been sealed at the point and plugged with cotton can be kept on hand just as are sterilized test-tubes.

SPECIAL MEDIA.—The media just described—bouillon, nutrient gelatin, nutrient agar-agar, potato, and blood-serum—are those in general use in the laboratory for purposes of isolation and study of the ordinary forms of bacteria. For the finer points of differentiation special media have been suggested ; a few of them will be mentioned.

Milk. Fresh milk should be allowed to stand over night in the ice-chest, the cream then removed, and the remainder of the milk pipetted into test-tubes, about 8 c.c. to each tube, and sterilized by the intermittent process, at the temperature of steam, for three successive days.

The cream is best separated from the milk by the use of a cylindrical vessel with stopcock at the bottom, by means of which the milk, devoid of cream, may be drawn off. A Chevalier creamometer with stopcock at the bottom serves the purpose very well. It should be covered while standing.

Milk may be used as a culture medium without any addition to it, or, before sterilizing, a few drops of litmus tincture may be added, just enough to give it a pale blue color. By this means it may be seen that different organisms bring about different reactions in the medium ; some producing alkalies which cause the blue color to be intensified, others producing acids which change it to red, while others bring about neither of these changes. Similarly litmus solution is often added to gelatin and agar-agar for the same purpose.

Milk may also be employed as a solid culture medium

by the addition to it of gelatin or agar-agar in the proportions given for the preparation of the ordinary nutrient gelatin or agar-agar. It has, however, in this form the disadvantage of not being transparent, and can therefore best be used for the study of those organisms which grow upon the surface of the medium without causing liquefaction.

Nutrient gelatin and agar-agar can also be prepared from neutral milk whey, obtained from milk by precipitation of the casein.

Dunham's peptone solution. The medium usually known as Dunham's solution is prepared according to the following formula :

Dried peptone	1 part.
Sodium chloride	0.5 "
Distilled water	100 parts.

It is usually of a neutral or slightly alkaline reaction, and neutralization is not, therefore, necessary. It is filtered, decanted into tubes or flasks, and sterilized in the steam sterilizer in the ordinary way. The most common use to which this solution is put is in determining if the organism under consideration possesses the property of producing indol as one of its products of nutrition. It is essential for accuracy that the preparation of dried peptone employed should be of as nearly chemical purity as is possible, and indeed the other ingredients should be correspondingly free from impurities. Gorini (*Centralblatt für Bakteriologie und Parasitenkunde*, 1893, Bd. xiii. p. 790) calls attention to the fact that impurities in the peptone, particularly the presence of carbohydrates, so interfere with the production of indol by certain bacteria that otherwise produce it that it is oftentimes impossible, when such prep-

arations have been employed, to obtain the characteristic color reaction of this body, and where it is obtained it is always after a much longer time than is the case where peptone free from these substances has been used. He suggests the advisability of testing the purity of all peptone preparations before using them, by means of the reaction that they exhibit when acted upon by Fehling's alkaline copper solution. Under the influence of this agent pure peptone in solution gives a violet color (the biuret reaction), which remains permanent even after boiling for five minutes. If instead of a violet color there appears a red or reddish-yellow precipitate the peptone should be discarded, as in his experience no indol is produced from peptone giving this reaction. Both the peptone solution and that of the copper (particularly the latter) should be relatively dilute in order for the reaction to be successful.

Peptone rosalic acid solution. Peptone solution to which rosalic acid is added serves well for the detection of alterations in reaction. It consists of the peptone solution of Dunham, to each 100 c.c. of which 2 c.c. of the following solution is added :

Rosalic acid (coralline)		0.5 gramme.
Alcohol (80 per cent.)		100 c.c.

This is to be boiled, filtered, and decanted into clean, sterilized test-tubes, about 8 to 10 c.c. to each tube. The tubes are then to be sterilized in the usual way by steam. When sterilization is completed and the tubes cooled, the solution will be of a very pale rose color, which disappears entirely under the action of acids, and becomes much more intense when alkalies are produced. We have used this solution for some time for the study of the reactions produced by different organisms, and find

it a valuable addition to our means of differentiation of bacteria.

Rosalic acid cannot be used with safety in solutions containing glucose, as the reducing action of the latter deprives it of its color.

Lactose-litmus-agar, or gelatin of Wurtz. A medium of much use in the differentiation of bacteria is that recommended by Wurtz, consisting of ordinary nutrient, slightly alkaline agar-agar to which from 2 to 3 per cent. of lactose and sufficient litmus tincture to give it a pale blue color have been added. Bacteria capable of causing fermentation of lactose when grown on this medium develop into colonies of a pale pink color and cause, likewise, a reddening of the surrounding medium, owing to the production of acid as a result of their action upon the lactose; while other bacteria, incapable of such fermentative activities, grow as pale blue colonies and cause no reddening of the surrounding medium. It is especially useful for the differentiation of the bacillus of typhoid fever, which does not possess the property of bringing about fermentation of lactose, from other organisms that simulate it in many other respects but which possess this property.

Its preparation is as follows: To nutrient agar-agar or gelatin, the alkalinity of which is such that one cubic centimetre will require 0.1 c.c. of a 1 : 20 normal sulphuric acid solution to neutralize it, lactose is added in the proportion of 2 or 3 per cent.; it is then decanted into test-tubes and sterilized in the usual way. When sterilization is complete there is to be added to each tube enough *sterilized* litmus tincture to give a decided though not very intense blue color. This must be done carefully, to avoid contamination of the tubes during

manipulation. It is better not to add the litmus tincture before sterilizing the tubes, as its color characteristics are in some way altered by its contact with organic matters under the influence of heat.

When ready it may be used as ordinary agar-agar or gelatin, either for plates or slant cultures.

Löffler's blood-serum mixture. Löffler's blood-serum mixture consists of one part of neutral meat-infusion bouillon containing 1 per cent. of grape-sugar, and three parts of blood-serum. This mixture is placed in test-tubes, sterilized, and solidified in exactly the way given for blood-serum.

Guarniari's agar-gelatin :

Meat-infusion	950 c.c.
Sodium chloride	5 grammes.
Peptone	25-30 "
Gelatin	40-60 "
Agar-agar	3-4 "
Water	50 c.c.

The point in the preparation of this medium is its reaction, which should be exactly neutral.

The list of special media is too great to be given in a work of this size. Their description must be seen in the original. Those that have been given above will suffice for obtaining a clear understanding of the principles of the work.

NOTE.—The term "meat-infusion" always implies a watery extract of meat made by mixing 500 grammes of finely-chopped lean meat and 1 litre of water together, and allowing them to stand in a cool place for twenty-four hours. At the end of this time the fluid portion is strained off through a coarse towel. This represents the infusion.

CHAPTER VI.

Preparation of the tubes, flasks, etc., in which the media are to be preserved.

WHILE the media are in course of preparation it is well to get the test-tubes and flasks ready for their reception, and it is essential that they should be as clean as it is possible to make them. For this purpose it is advisable that both new tubes and those which have previously been used should be boiled for some time, about thirty to forty-five minutes, in a strong solution of common soda, about a 4 or 6 per cent. solution; it is not necessary to be exact as to the strength, but it should not be weaker than this. At the end of this time they are to be carefully swabbed out with a cylindrical bristle brush, preferably one having a reed handle Fig. 18), as those with wire handles are apt to break

FIG. 18.



Brush for cleaning test-tubes.

through the bottoms of the tubes. All trace of adherent material should be carefully removed. When the tubes are quite clean they may be rinsed in a warm solution of commercial hydrochloric acid of the strength of about 1 per cent. This is to remove the alkali. They are then to be thoroughly rinsed in clear, running water, and stood top down until the water has drained from

them. When dry they are to be plugged with raw cotton. The plugging with the cotton requires a little practice before it can be properly done. The cotton should be introduced into the mouths of the tubes in such a way that no cracks or creases exist, but should fill them quite regularly all around. The plugs should fit neither too tightly nor too loosely, but should be just firmly enough in position to sustain the weight of the tube into which it is placed when held up by the portion which projects from and overhangs the mouth of the tube. The tubes thus plugged with cotton are now to be placed upright in a wire basket and heated for one hour in the hot-air sterilizer at a temperature of about 150° C. A very good rule for this process of sterilizing is to observe the tubes from time to time, and as soon as the cotton has become a very light brown color, not deeper than a dark-cream tint, to consider sterilization complete. The tubes are then removed and allowed to cool down.

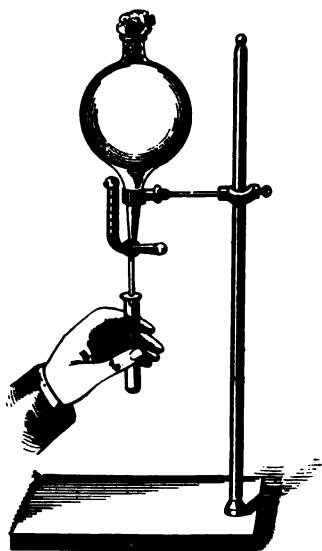
The cotton used for this purpose should be the ordinary cotton batting of the shops, and not absorbent cotton; the latter becomes too tightly packed, and is, moreover, much too expensive for this purpose.

Care should be taken not to burn the cotton, otherwise the tubes will become coated with a dark-colored oily deposit which renders them unfit for use, and they will have to be cleaned again.

FILLING THE TUBES.—When the tubes are cold they may be filled. This is best accomplished by the use of a spherical form of funnel, such as is shown in Fig. 19. The liquefied medium is poured into this funnel, which has been carefully washed, and by pressing the pinch-cock with which the funnel is provided, the desired

amount of material (5-10 c.c.) may be allowed to flow into the tubes held under its opening.

FIG. 19.



Funnel for filling tubes with culture media.

It is not necessary to sterilize the funnel, for the medium is to be subjected to this process as soon as it is in the test-tubes.

Care should be taken that none of the medium is dropped upon the mouth of the test-tube, otherwise the cotton plugs become adherent to it and are not only difficult to remove, but present a very untidy appearance, and interfere, indeed, with the proper manipulations.

As soon as the tubes have been filled they are to be sterilized in the steam sterilizer for fifteen minutes on

each of three successive days. During the intervening days they may be kept at the ordinary room temperature.

When sterilization is complete, and the medium in the tubes is still liquid, some of them may be placed in a slanting position, at an angle of about ten degrees with the surface on which they rest, and the medium allowed to solidify in this position. These are for the so-called slant cultures. The balance may solidify in the erect position; these serve for the plate cultures.

For Esmarch tubes not more than 5 c.c. of material should be placed in each tube, as more than this renders the rolling difficult and irregular.

CHAPTER VII.

Technique of making plates—Esmarch tubes, Petri plates, etc.

PLATES.—The plate method can be practised with both agar-agar and gelatin. It cannot be practised with blood-serum, because the serum, when once solidified, cannot be again liquefied.

Plates are usually referred to as “a set.” This term implies three individual plates, each representing the mixture of organisms in a higher stage of dilution. The first plate is known usually as “the original,” or “plate 1,” the first dilution from this as “plate 2,” and the second as “plate 3.”

In the preparation of a set of plates the following are the steps to be observed :

Three tubes, each containing from 7 to 9 c.c. of gelatin or agar-agar, are placed in the warm water bath until the medium has become liquid. If agar-agar is employed, this is accomplished at the boiling-point of water ; if gelatin is used, a much lower temperature suffices (35°–40° C.). When liquefaction is complete the temperature of the water, in the case of agar-agar, must be reduced to 41°–42° C., at which temperature the agar-agar remains liquid, and the organisms may be introduced into it without fear of destroying their vitality. The medium being now liquid and of the proper temperature, a very small portion of the mixture of organisms to be studied is taken up with a steril-

ized, looped platinum wire, Fig. 20. This is nothing more than a piece of platinum wire of about 5 cm. long, twisted into a small loop at one end and fused into a bit of glass rod, which acts as a handle, at the other extremity. This loop is one of the most useful of bacteriological instruments, as there is hardly a manipulation in the work into which it does not enter. Under no conditions is it to be employed without having

FIG. 20.

a



b

Looped and straight platinum wires in glass handles.



been passed through the gas-flame until quite hot; this is for the purpose of sterilization. One should form a habit of never taking up one of these platinum-wire needles, as they are called, for they are both looped and curved or straight (Fig. 20, *b*), without passing it through the flame, and the sooner the beginner learns to do this as a matter of reflex, the sooner does he rid himself of one of the possible sources of error in his work. It must be remembered, though, that it should not be used when hot, otherwise the organisms taken upon it are killed by the high temperature; after sterilization in the flame one waits for a few seconds until it is cool before using.

The bit of material under consideration is transferred with the sterilized loop into tube No. 1, "the original," where it is carefully disintegrated by gently rubbing it

against the sides of the tube. The more carefully this is done the more homogeneous will be the distribution of the organisms and the better the results. The loop is then again sterilized, and three of its loopfuls are passed, *without touching the sides of the tube*, from "the original" into tube No. 2, where they are carefully mixed. Again the loop is sterilized and again three dips are made from tube 2 into tube 3. This completes the dilution. The loop is now sterilized before laying it aside.

FIG. 21.



Levelling tripod with glass chamber for plates.

During this manipulation, which must be done quickly if agar-agar is employed, the temperature of the water in the bath in which the tubes stand should never get lower than 39°C ., and never higher than 43°C . If it falls too low, below 38°C ., the agar-agar gelatinizes, and can only be redissolved by a temperature that would be destructive to the organisms which may have been introduced into the tubes. This is not

of so much moment with gelatin, as it may readily be redissolved at a temperature not detrimental to the organisms with which the tubes may have been inoculated.

THE COOLING-STAGE AND LEVELLING TRIPOD.—While the medium of which the plates are to be made is melting, it is well to arrange the cooling-stage (Fig. 21) upon which it is to be subsequently solidified.

This stage consists of a glass dish filled with ice-water and covered with a ground-glass plate, which in turn has a dome-shaped cover. The dish rests upon a tripod which can be brought to an exact level, as indicated by the spirit-level, by raising or lowering its legs by means of screws, with which they are provided. Three stages are usually employed. When ready for use they should be exactly level.

FIG. 22.



Russia iron box for holding plates, etc., during sterilization in dry heat.

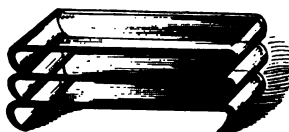
THE GLASS PLATES.—On each of the stages is to be placed a glass plate upon which the liquefied gelatin or agar-agar is to be poured and allowed to solidify. It is, therefore, necessary that the plates should not only be sterile when placed upon the stages, but should be carefully protected by a cover against dust and bacteria from outside sources during manipulation.

A number of plates at a time are usually sterilized in the dry sterilizer at a temperature of 150° to 180° C. for one hour. During sterilization and until used they are retained in an iron box (Fig. 22), which is especially designed for the purpose.

They should never be placed upon the stage until cold; otherwise they crack.

When the plates which have been placed upon the stages are quite cold, the melted gelatin or agar-agar in the tubes which represent the three dilutions should be poured upon them, each tube being emptied upon a separate plate. If the medium is quite fluid it spreads over the surface of the plates in a thin, even layer. Sometimes it may be more evenly spread as it flows from the tube by the aid of a sterilized glass rod.

FIG. 23.



Glass benches for supporting plates.

As the contents of each tube are emptied upon a plate the cover of the cooling-stage is quickly replaced and the plate allowed to stand until the gelatin or agar-agar is quite solid. This takes longer with gelatin than with agar. When quite solid they are placed upon little glass benches (Fig. 23), and each bench is labelled with the number of the plate in the series of dilutions. The benches, with the plates upon them, are then piled one above the other in a glass dish, the so-called "culture-dish," in which the plates are to be kept during the

growth of the bacteria. The benches are sterilized before using, in the way given for the plates.

CULTURE-DISH.—This dish, which is about 22 cm. in diameter and has vertical sides of about 6 cm. in height, is provided with a cover of exactly the same design, but of a little larger diameter. This cover, when placed upon the dish containing the plates, fits over it and prevents the access of dust. Prior to using, the dish and cover should have been disinfected for one-half hour with 1:1000 sublimate, and then all the sublimate solution allowed to drain from it.

Into the bottom of this dish is sometimes placed a disk of sterilized filter-paper moistened with sterilized water, which serves to prevent the drying of the plates. This, however, is not necessary.

If agar-agar is employed, the dish and its contents may be placed at a temperature of 37°–38° C.; if gelatin, the temperature at which the plates are now to be kept should not be over 22° C., otherwise the gelatin becomes liquefied and the plates are rendered useless.

When development has occurred, the object of the dilution will easily be seen, and the different species of bacteria in the mixture will be recognized by differences in the character of the colonies growing from them.

This, in short, is the plate method of Koch for the separation of the individual species contained in a mixture of bacteria. Many modifications of this method exist; all, however, are based upon the same principles. The modifications have for their object the accomplishment of the same end, but with a smaller armamentarium of apparatus.

PETRI'S MODIFICATION OF THE PLATE METHOD.—The modification which approaches nearest to the original

method, and at the same time lessens very materially the number of steps in the process, is that suggested by Petri. It consists in substituting for the plates small, round, double glass dishes, which have about the same surface-area as the plates. The liquid medium may be poured directly into these little dishes without their being exactly level. Each dish acts as a plate. Their covers are then to be replaced, and they are set aside for observation. In all other respects the steps are the same as those given for Koch's original method. Petri's dishes are flat, double dishes of glass (Fig. 24). They are of about 8 cm. in

FIG. 24.



Petri double dish, now generally used instead of plates.

diameter and about 1.5 to 2 cm. in height, the walls being vertical. They may readily be sterilized either by the hot-air or steam methods of sterilization. They are very useful for this work, as they do away with the necessity for the cooling-stage and levelling tripods, though in warm weather the cooling-stage may be used to hasten the solidification of gelatin.

ESMARCH'S TUBES.—The modification of Koch's method which insures the greatest security from contamination by outside organisms and requires the smallest supply of apparatus, is that suggested by v. Esmarch. It differs from the other methods thus: The dilutions having been prepared in tubes containing a smaller amount of medium than usual—as a rule not more than

5 to 6 c.c.—are, instead of being poured out upon plates or into dishes, spread over the inner surface of the tube containing them, and without removing the cotton plugs are caused to solidify in this position. The tubes then present a thin cylindrical lining of gelatin or agar-agar, upon which the colonies develop. In all other respects the conditions for the growth of the organisms are the same as in flat plates.

Esmarch directs that after completion of the dilutions the tops of the cotton plugs in the tubes should be cut off flush with the mouth of the test-tube and a sterilized rubber cap be placed over this. They are then to be held in the horizontal position and twisted between the fingers upon their long axes under ice-water. The gelatin becomes solidified thereby and adheres to the sides of the tube. When the gelatin is quite hard the tubes are removed from the water, wiped dry, the rubber caps removed, and they are set aside for observation.

For some time past we have deviated from the direction given by v. Esmarch for this part of his method, and instead of rolling the tubes under ice-water, we roll them upon a block of ice (Fig. 25), after the method devised by Booker in the Pathological Laboratory of the Johns Hopkins University in 1887. In this method a small block of ice only is needed. It is arranged nearly level, and is held in position by being placed in a dish upon a cloth. A horizontal groove is melted in the surface of the ice with a test-tube of hot water. The tubes to be rolled are then held in an almost, *not quite*, horizontal position and twisted between the fingers until the sides are moistened by the contents to within about 1 cm. of the cotton plug, care being taken that the gelatin *does not touch* the cotton; otherwise the latter

becomes adherent to the sides of the tube and is difficult to remove. The tube is then placed in the groove in the ice and rolled, neither rubber cap nor cutting off of the cotton plug being necessary.

FIG. 25.



Demonstrating Booker's method of rolling Esmarch tubes on a block of ice.

The advantages of this process over that followed by v. Esmarch are that it requires less time, is cleaner, no rubber caps are needed, the rolled tubes are more regular, and the gelatin does not touch the cotton plug, as is always the case in the tubes rolled under water, because of the impossibility of holding them steady at one level.

There is an impression that Esmarch tubes are not a success when made from ordinary nutrient agar-agar because of the tendency of this medium to collapse and fall into the bottom of the tube. This slipping down of the agar-agar is due to the water that is squeezed from it during solidification getting between the medium and the walls of the tube. This can easily be overcome by allowing the rolled tubes to remain in nearly a hori-

zontal position, the cotton end of the tube about 1.5 to 2 cm. higher than the bottom of the tube, for twenty-four hours after rolling them. During this time the edge of the agar-agar nearest the cotton plug becomes dried and adherent to the walls of the tube, while the water collects at the most dependent point, *i. e.*, the bottom of the tube. After this they may be retained in the upright position without fear of the agar-agar slipping down. We have followed this process for several years with entire satisfaction.¹

In all these processes, if the dilutions of the number of organisms have been properly conducted, the results will be the same. The original plate or tube, as a rule, will be of no use because of the great number of colonies in it. Plate or tube No. 2 may be of service, but plate or tube 3 will usually contain the organisms in such small numbers that the colonies originating from them will have nothing to prevent their characteristic development.

For reasons of economy, the "original," tube 1, is sometimes substituted by a tube containing normal salt solution (0.6 to 0.7 per cent. of sodium chloride in water), which is thrown aside as soon as the dilutions are completed and only plates or tubes 2 and 3 are made.

¹ The impression that agar-agar is not suitable for roll tubes was shown to be erroneous, and the above method was developed in the Pathological Laboratory of the Johns Hopkins University.



CHAPTER VIII.

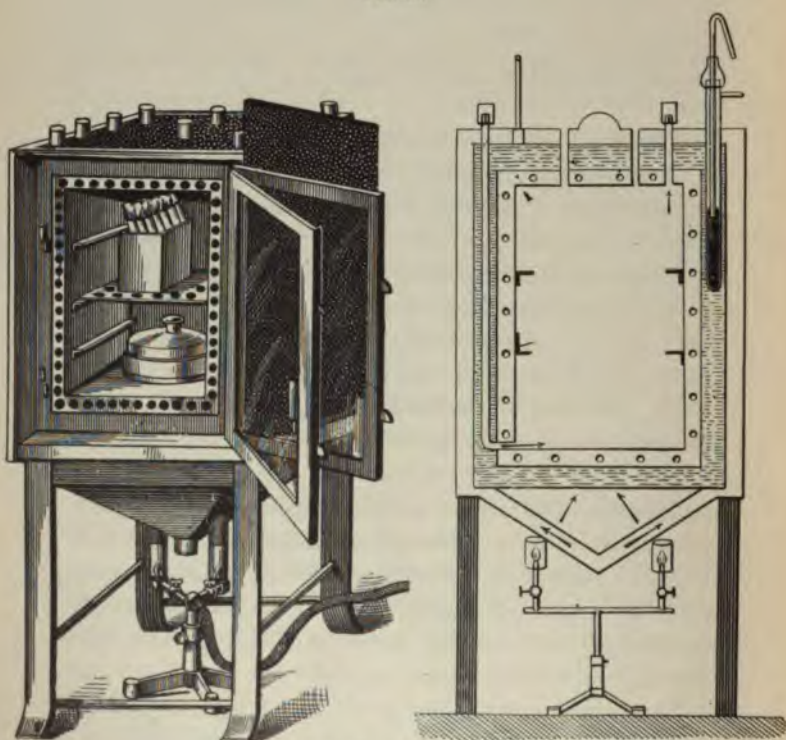
The incubating oven—Gas-pressure regulator—Thermo-regulator—The safety burner employed in heating the incubator.

THE INCUBATOR.—When the plates have been made, it must be borne in mind that for the development of certain forms of bacteria a higher temperature is necessary than for the growth of others. The pathogenic or disease-producing organisms all grow more luxuriantly at the temperature of the human body (37.5° C.) than at lower temperatures; whereas, with the ordinary saprophytic forms almost any temperature between 18° C. and that of the body is favorable. It therefore becomes necessary to provide some place in which a constant temperature suitable to the growth of the pathogenic organisms can be maintained. For this purpose there have been devised a number of different forms of apparatus. Fundamentally they are all based upon the same principles, however, and a general description of the essential points involved in their construction will be all that is needed here.

This apparatus has the names thermostat, incubator, and brooding oven. It is a copper chamber (Fig. 26) with double walls, the space between which is filled with water. The incubating chamber may be opened or closed by a closely fitting double door, inside of which is usually a false door of glass through which the contents of the chamber may be inspected without actually opening it. The whole apparatus is encased

in either asbestos boards or thick felt to prevent radiation of heat and consequent fluctuations in temperature. In the top of the chamber is a small opening through

FIG. 26.



Incubator used in bacteriological work.

which a thermometer projects into its interior. At either corner, leading into the space containing the water, are other openings for the reception of another thermometer and a thermo-regulator, and for refilling the apparatus as the water evaporates. On the side is a

water-gauge for showing the level of the water between the walls. The object of the water chamber, which is formed by the double wall arrangement, is to insure, by means of the warmed water, an equable temperature at all parts of the apparatus—at the top as well as at the sides, back, and bottom, and the apparatus should be kept filled with water, otherwise the purpose for which it is constructed will not be accomplished. When the chamber between the walls is filled with water heat is supplied from a gas-flame placed beneath it.

FIG. 27.



Koch's safety burner.

The burner employed in heating the incubator was originally devised by Koch and is known as "Koch's safety burner" (Fig. 27). It is a Bunsen burner provided with an arrangement for automatically turning off the gas supply and thus preventing accidents should

the flame become extinguished at a time when no one was near. The gas-cock by which the gas is turned on and off is provided with a long arm which is weighted and which, when the gas is turned on and *burning*, rests upon the side of a revolving, horizontal plate that is connected with the free ends of two metal spirals which are fixed in opposite directions on either side of the flame and heated by it. If by draughts or any other accident the flame becomes extinguished the metal spirals cool, and in cooling contract, twist the horizontal plate in the opposite direction and allow the weighted arm of the gas-cock to fall. By its falling the gas supply is turned off.

THERMO-REGULATORS.—The regulation and maintenance of the proper temperature within the incubator is accomplished by the employment of an automatic thermo-regulator.

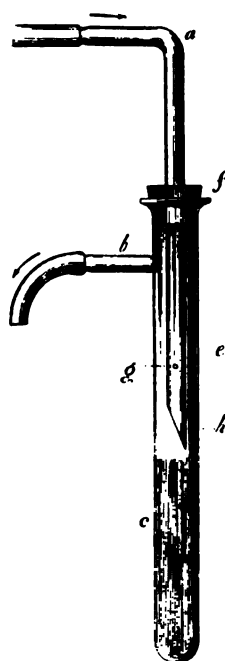
The form of thermo-regulator used for this purpose is constructed upon principles involving the expansion and contraction of fluid substances under the influence of heat and cold. By means of this expansion and contraction, the amount of gas passing from the source of supply to the burner may be either diminished or increased as the temperature of the substance in which the regulator is placed either rises or falls.

The simplest form of thermo-regulator which serves to illustrate the principles involved is seen in Fig. 28.

It consists of a glass cylinder *e*, having a communicating branch tube *b*, and rubber stopper *f*, through which projects the bent tube *a*. The tube *a* is ground to a slanting point at the extremity which projects into the tube *e*, and is provided a short distance above this point with a capillary opening *g*, in one of its sides.

When ready for use the cylinder *e* is filled with fluid, either mercury, calcium chloride solution, alcohol and ether, or a number of other substances depending upon the temperature to which it is to be subjected, up to

FIG. 28.



Mercurial thermo-regulator.

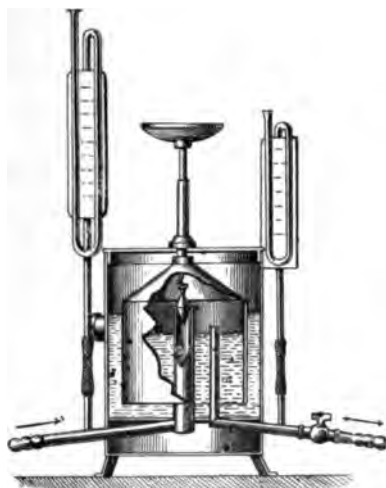
about the level shown in the figure. It is then allowed to stand or is suspended in the bath the temperature of which it is to regulate. The rubber tubing coming from the gas supply is attached to the outer end of the glass tube *a*, and the tube going to the burner is slipped over the branch tube *b*. The gas is turned on and the

burner lighted and placed under the bath. The gas now streams through the tube *a* into the cylinder *e* and out at *b* to the burner, but as the temperature of the bath rises, the fluid contained in the cylinder *e*, under the influence of the elevation of temperature begins to expand, and as a continuous rise in temperature proceeds, the expansion of the fluid accompanies it and gradually closes the slanting opening *h* of tube *a*. In this way the supply of gas becomes diminished and the rise in temperature of the bath will be less rapid, until finally the opening at *h* will be closed entirely, when the supply of gas to the burner will now be limited to that passing through the capillary opening *g*. This is not sufficient to maintain the highest temperature reached, and a gradual contraction of the fluid now occurs until there is again an outflow of gas from the opening *h*, when again the temperature rises. This contraction and expansion of the fluid in the regulator continues until eventually a point is reached at which the position of the fluid in the cylinder *e* allows of the passage of just enough gas from the opening *h* to maintain a constant temperature. This, in short, is the principle on which thermo-regulators are constructed, but it must be borne in mind that a great deal of detail exists in the construction of an accurate instrument. The number of different forms of this apparatus is comparatively large, and each form has its special merits.

The value, that is the delicacy, of the thermo-regulator depends upon a number of factors, all of which it would be useless to introduce into a book of this kind, but in general it may be said that the essential points to be observed in selecting a thermo-regulator

depend in the main upon the temperatures to which it is to be applied. For low temperatures such fluids as ether, alcohol, and calcium chloride solution, which expand and contract rapidly and regularly under slight variations in temperature, are commonly employed; whereas for temperatures approaching the boiling-point of water mercury is most frequently used.

FIG. 29.



Moltessier's gas-pressure regulator.

The temperature of the incubator is to be regulated, then, by the use of some such form of apparatus as that just described. It should be of sufficient delicacy to prevent a fluctuation of more than 0.2° C. in the temperature of the air within the chamber of the apparatus.

GAS-PRESSURE REGULATORS.—A gas-pressure regulator is not rarely intervened between the gas supply and the thermo-regulator. This apparatus has for its

object the maintenance of a constant pressure of the gas going to the thermo-regulator. There are several instruments of this form in use, but they do not accomplish the object for which they are designed.

The instrument most commonly employed, the apparatus of Moitessier (Fig. 29), is based on somewhat the same principles as the large regulators seen at the manufactories of illuminating gas, which act very well when employed on the large scale, as one sees them there; but which, when applied to the limited and sudden fluctuations seen in the gas coming from an ordinary gas-cock, are practically useless. They are too gross in their construction, and are only seen to act under comparatively great and gradual fluctuations in pressure. If a good form of thermo-regulator is employed there is no necessity for the use of any of the forms of pressure-regulators thus far introduced.



CHAPTER IX.

The study of colonies—Their naked-eye peculiarities and their appearance under different conditions—Differences in the structure of colonies from different species of bacteria—Stab cultures—Slant cultures.

THE plates upon agar-agar which have been prepared from a mixture of organisms and have been placed in the incubator, and those of gelatin which have been maintained at the ordinary temperature of the room, are usually ready for examination after twenty-four to forty-eight hours. They will be found to be marked here and there by small points or little islands of more or less opaque appearance. In some instances these will be so transparent that it is with difficulty one can see them with the naked eye. Again, they may be of a dense opaque appearance, at one time sharply circumscribed and round, again irregular in their outline; here a point will present one color, there perhaps another. On gelatin some of the points will be seen to be lying on the surface of the medium, others will have sunk into little depressions, while at still other points the clear gelatin will be marked by more or less saucer-shape pits containing opaque fluid.

Place the plate containing these points upon the stage of the microscope and examine them with the lowest power objective, and again differences will be observed. Some of these minute points will be finely granular, others coarsely so; some will present a radiated appearance, while a neighbor may be concentrically arranged.

Here nothing particularly characteristic will present, there the point may resolve itself into a little mass having somewhat the appearance of a very small pellicle of raw cotton. All these differences, and many more, aid us in saying that these little points must be different in their nature. With a pointed platinum needle take up a bit of one of these little islands, prepare it for microscopic examination (see chapter on stained cover-slip preparations), and examine it under the high power oil-immersion objective, under access of the greatest amount of light afforded by the illuminator of the microscope. The preparation will be seen to be made up entirely of bodies of the same shape; they will all be spheres, or ovals, or rods, but not a mixture of these forms, if proper care in the manipulation has been taken. Examine in the same way a neighboring spot which possesses different naked-eye appearances, and it will often be found to consist of bodies of an entirely different appearance from those in the first preparation.

These spots or islands on the surface of the plates are colonies of bacteria, differing severally, not only in outward appearances, the one from the other, but, as our cover-slip preparations show, in the morphological characteristics of the individual organisms composing them. If from one of these colonies a second set of plates be prepared, the peculiarities which were at first observed in this colony will be reproduced in all of the new set of colonies which develop; each will be found to consist of the same organisms as the colony from which the plates were made. In other words, these peculiarities are constant under constant conditions.

With all organisms differences in the appearance of the colonies depending upon their location in the medium

can usually be detected. When deep down in the medium, owing to surrounding pressure, they are quite round, oval, or lozenge-shape; whereas, when they are on the surface of the gelatin or agar, they may take quite a different form. This is purely a mechanical effect, and is always to be borne in mind, otherwise errors are apt to arise.

PURE CULTURES.—If from one of these small colonies a bit be taken upon the point of a *sterilized* platinum needle and introduced into a tube of sterilized gelatin or agar-agar, the growth that results will be what is known as a “pure culture,” the condition in which all organisms must be before a systematic study of their many peculiarities is begun. Sometimes several series of plates are necessary before the organism can be obtained pure, but by patiently following this plan the results will ultimately be satisfactory.

TEST-TUBE CULTURES; STAB CULTURES; SMEAR CULTURES.—After separating the organisms, the one from the other by the plate method just described, they must be isolated from the plates as pure stab or smear cultures.

This is done in the following way: Decide upon the colony from which the pure culture is to be made. Select preferably a small colony and one as widely separated from other colonies as possible. Sterilize in the gas-flame a straight platinum-wire needle. The glass handle of the needle should be drawn through the flame as well as the needle itself, otherwise contamination from this source may occur. When it is cool, which is in five or ten seconds, take up carefully a portion of the colony. Guard against touching *anything but the colony*. If, during manipulation, the needle touches *anything*

else whatever than the colony from which the culture is to be made, it must be sterilized again. This holds not only for the time before touching the colony, but also during its passage into the test-tube from the colony, otherwise there is no guarantee that the growth resulting from the inoculation of this bit of colony into a fresh sterile medium will be pure.

In the meantime have in the other hand a test-tube of sterile medium : gelatin, agar-agar, or potato. This tube is held across the palm of the hand in an almost horizontal position with its mouth pointing out between the thumb and index finger and its contents toward the body of the worker. With the disengaged fingers of the hand holding the needle, the cotton plug is removed from the tube by a twisting motion and placed between the index and second fingers of the hand holding the tube in such a way that the portion of the plug which fits into the mouth of the test-tube looks toward the dorsal surface of the hand and *does not touch any portion of the hand*—this is accomplished by placing *only the overhanging* portion of the plug between the fingers. The needle containing the bit of colony is now to be thrust into the medium in the tube if a stab culture is desired, or rubbed gently over its surface if a smear culture is to be made. The needle is then withdrawn, the cotton plug replaced, *and the needle sterilized* before it is laid down. Neither the needle nor its handle should touch the inner sides of the test-tube if it can be avoided.

The tube is then labelled and set aside for observation. The growth which appears in the tube after twenty-four to thirty-six hours will be a pure culture of the organisms of which the colony was composed.

Cultures of this form are not only useful as a means of preserving pure cultures of the different organisms with which we may be working, but serve also to bring out certain characteristics of different organisms when grown in this way.

If gelatin is employed and the organism which has been introduced into it possesses the power of bringing about liquefaction, this result is by no means of the same appearance for all organisms. Some organisms cause a liquefaction which spreads across the whole upper surface of the gelatin and continues gradually downward; again it occurs in a funnel shape, the broad end of the funnel being uppermost and the point downward, corresponding to the track of the needle. At times a stocking- or sac-formed liquefaction may be noticed.

NOTE.—Obtain a number of organisms from different sources in pure cultures by the method given. Plant them as pure cultures, all at the same time, in gelatin—preferably gelatin of the same making—retain them under the same conditions of temperature, and sketch the finer differences in the way in which liquefaction occurs.



CHAPTER X.

Methods of staining—Solutions employed—Preparation and staining of cover-slips—Preparation of tissues for section-cutting—Staining of tissues—Special staining methods.

THE entire list of solutions and methods that are recommended for the staining of bacteria are not essential to the work of the beginner, so that only those which are of most common application will be given in this book. In general, it suffices to say, bacteria stain best with watery solutions of the basic aniline dyes, and of these, fuchsin, gentian-violet, and methylene-blue are those most frequently employed.

In practical work bacteria require to be stained in two conditions: either dried upon cover-slips and then stained, or stained in sections of tissues in which they have been deposited during the course of disease. In both processes the essential point to be borne in mind is that the bacteria, because of their microscopic dimensions, require to be more conspicuously stained than the surrounding materials upon the cover-slips or in the sections, otherwise their differentiation is a matter of the greatest difficulty, if not of impossibility. For this reason, especially in the case of section staining, it frequently becomes necessary to decolorize the tissues after removing them from the staining solutions in order to render the bacteria more prominent; and for this purpose special methods, which provide for decolorization of the tissues without robbing the bacteria of

their color, are employed. The ordinary method of cover-slip examination of bacteria, constantly in use in these studies, is performed in the following way:

COVER-SLIP PREPARATIONS.—In order that the distribution of the organisms upon the cover slips may be uniform and in as thin a layer as possible, it is essential that the slip should be clean and free from grease. For cleansing the slips several methods may be employed.

The simplest plan with new cover-slips is to immerse them for a few hours in strong nitric acid, after which they are rinsed in water, then in alcohol, ether, and, finally, they may be kept in alcohol to which a little ammonia has been added. When they are to be used they should be wiped dry with a clean cotton or silk handkerchief.

If the slips have been previously used, boiling in strong soap solution, followed by rinsing in clean warm water, then treated as above, renders them clean enough for ordinary purposes.

A method commonly employed is to remove all coarse adherent matter from slips and slides by allowing them to remain for a time in strong nitric or sulphuric acid. They are removed from the acid after several days, rinsed off in water, and treated as above. Knauer has recently suggested the boiling of soiled cover-slips and slides for from twenty to thirty minutes in a 10 per cent. watery solution of lysol, after which they are to be carefully rinsed in water until all trace of the lysol has disappeared. They are then to be wiped dry with a clean handkerchief.

Löffler's method, which provides for the complete removal of all grease, is to warm the cover-slips in con-

centrated sulphuric acid for a time, then rinse them in water, after which they are kept in a mixture of equal parts of alcohol and ammonia. They are to be dried on a cloth from which the fat has been extracted.

Steps in making the preparations. Place upon the centre of one of the clean, dry cover-slips a very small drop of distilled water or physiological salt solution. With a platinum needle, which has been sterilized in the gas-flame *just before using* and allowed to cool, take up a very small portion of the colony to be examined and mix it carefully with the drop on the slip until there exists a very thin homogeneous film over the larger part of the surface. This is to be dried upon the slip by either allowing it to remain upon the table in the horizontal position under a cover, to protect it from dust, or by holding it *between the fingers (not with the forceps)*, at some distance above the gas-flame, until it is quite dry. If held with the forceps over the flame at this stage, too much heat may be unconsciously applied, and the morphology of the organisms in the preparation distorted. When held between the fingers with the layer of bacteria *away from the flame* no such accident is likely to occur. When the whole pellicle is completely dried the slip is to be taken up with the forceps, and, holding the side upon which the bacteria are deposited away from the direct action of the flame, is to be passed through the flame three times, a little more than one second being allowed for each transit. Unless the preliminary drying at the low temperature has been complete, the preparation will be rendered worthless by the subsequent "fixing" at the higher temperature, for the reason that the protoplasm of bacteria when moist coagulates at these temperatures, and in doing so the

normal outline of the cells is altered. If carefully dried before fixing, this does not occur and the morphology of the organism remains unchanged. A better plan for the process of fixing is to employ a copper plate of about 35 cm. long by 10 cm. wide by 0.3 cm. thick. This plate is laid upon an iron tripod and a small gas-flame is placed beneath one of its extremities. By this arrangement one can get a graduated temperature, beginning at the point of the plate above the gas-flame where it is hottest, and becoming gradually cooler toward the other end of the plate, which may be of a very low temperature. By dropping water upon the plate, beginning at the hottest point and proceeding toward the cooler end, it is easy to determine the point at which the water just boils; it is at a little below this point that the cover-slips are to be placed, bacteria side up, and allowed to remain about ten minutes, when the fixing will be complete. The same may be accomplished in a small copper drying oven, which is regulated to remain at the temperature of 95° to 98° C. In very particular work this plan is to be preferred to the process of passing the cover-slips through the flame, as the organisms are always subjected to the same degree of heat, and the distortions which sometimes occur from the too great and irregular application of high temperatures may in part be eliminated, or if not, will be more nearly constant. The fixing consists in drying or coagulating the gelatinous envelope surrounding the organisms, by which means they are caused to adhere to the surface of the cover-slip. When fixed, the staining is usually a simple matter. The majority of bacteria with which the beginner will have to deal stain readily with solutions of any of the basic aniline dyes.

To stain the fixed cover-slip preparation it is taken by one of its edges between the forceps, and a few drops of a watery solution of fuchsin, gentian-violet, or methylene-blue are placed upon the film and are allowed to remain there twenty to thirty seconds. The slip is then carefully rinsed in water, and without drying is placed *bacteria down* upon a slide; the excess of water is taken up by covering it with blotting-paper and gently pressing upon it, and the preparation is ready for examination.

Another plan that is sometimes used is to bring the slip upon the slide, *bacteria down*, without rinsing off the staining fluid; the excess of fluid is removed with blotting-paper and the preparation is ready for examination with the microscope. This method is satisfactory and time-saving, but must always be practised with care. The staining fluid should always be carefully filtered before using, to rid it of insoluble particles which might mislead the examiner into mistaking them for bacteria. If upon examination the preparation proves to be of particular interest, so that it is desirable to preserve it, then it is to be mounted permanently. The drop of immersion oil is to be removed from the surface of the slip with blotting-paper, and the slip loosened, or rather floated, from the slide by allowing water to flow around its edges. It is then taken up with the forceps, carefully deprived of the water adhering to it by means of blotting-paper, and then allowed to dry. When dry it is mounted in xylol-Canada-balsam by placing a small drop of the balsam upon the surface of the film, and then inverting the slip upon a clean glass slide. It is sometimes desirable to have the balsam harden quickly, and a method that is com-

monly employed to induce this is as follows : The slide, held by one of its ends between the fingers, is warmed over the gas-flame until quite hot ; a drop of balsam is then placed on the centre of it, and it is again warmed ; the cover-slip is then placed in position, and when the balsam is evenly distributed the temperature is rapidly reduced by rubbing the bottom of the slide with a towel soaked in cold water. Usually the preparation is firmly fixed after this treatment ; but a little practice is necessary in order not to overheat and not to crack the slide. The method is applicable only to cover-slip preparations and cannot be used with tissues.

IMPRESSION COVER-SLIP PREPARATIONS.—The impression preparations differ in value from the ordinary cover-slip preparations only in one respect : they present an impression of the organisms as they were arranged in the colony from which the preparation is made. They are made by gently covering the colony with a thin, clean cover-slip, lightly pressing upon it, and, without moving the slip laterally, lifting it up by one of its edges. The organisms adhere to the slip in the same relation to one another that they had in the colony. The subsequent steps of drying, fixing, staining, and mounting are the same as those just given for the ordinary cover-slip preparations.

By this method, constancies in the arrangement and grouping of the individuals in a colony can often be made out. Some will always appear irregularly massed together, others will grow in parallel bundles, while others, again, will be seen as long twisted threads.

THE ORDINARY STAINING SOLUTIONS.—The solutions commonly employed in staining cover-slip preparations are, as has been stated, watery solutions of the

basic aniline dyes—fuchsin, gentian-violet, and methylene-blue. These solutions may be prepared either by directly dissolving the dyes in substance in water until the proper degree of concentration has been reached, or by preparing them from concentrated watery or alcoholic solutions of the dyes which may be kept on hand as stock. The latter method is that commonly practised.

The solutions of the colors which are in constant use in staining are prepared as followed :

Prepare as stock, saturated alcoholic or watery solutions of fuchsin, gentian-violet, and methylene-blue. These solutions are best prepared by pouring into clean bottles enough of the dyes in substance to fill them to about one-fourth of their capacity. The bottle should then be filled with alcohol or with water, tightly corked, well shaken, and allowed to stand for twenty-four hours. If at the end of this time all the staining material has been dissolved, more should be added, the bottle being again shaken, and allowed to stand for another twenty-four hours ; this must be repeated until a permanent sediment of undissolved coloring matter is seen upon the bottom of the bottle. This will then be labelled saturated alcoholic or watery solution of fuchsin, gentian-violet, or methylene-blue, as the case may be. *These alcoholic solutions are not employed for staining purposes.*

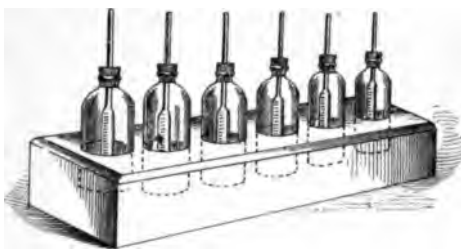
The solutions with which the staining is accomplished are made from these alcoholic solutions in the following way :

An ordinary test-tube of about 13 mm. diameter is three-fourths filled with distilled water and the concentrated alcoholic or watery solution of the dye is then

added, little by little, until one can just see through the solution. It is then ready for use. Care must be taken that the color does not become too dense. The best results are obtained when it is *just transparent* as viewed through a layer of about 12 to 14 mm. thick.

These represent the staining solutions in everyday use. They are kept in bottles supplied with stoppers and pipettes (Fig. 30), and when used are dropped upon the preparation to be stained. After remaining upon the preparation for from twenty to thirty seconds, they are washed off in water and the preparation can then be examined.

FIG. 30.



Rack of bottles for staining solutions.

For certain bacteria which stain only imperfectly with these simple solutions it is necessary to employ some agent that will increase the penetrating action of the dyes. Experience has taught us that this can be accomplished by the addition to the solutions of small quantities of alkaline substances or by dissolving the staining materials in strong watery solutions of either aniline oil or carbolic acid, instead of simple water—in other words, by employing mordants with the stains.

Of the solutions thus prepared which may always be employed upon bacteria that show a tendency to stain

imperfectly, there are three in common use—Löffler's alkaline methylene-blue solution, the Koch-Ehrlich aniline-water solution of either fuchsin, gentian-violet, or methylene-blue, and Ziehl's solution of fuchsin in carbolic acid. These solutions are as follows :

Löffler's alkaline methylene-blue solution :

Concentrated alcoholic solution of methylene-blue	30 c.c.
Caustic potash in 1 : 10,000 solution	100 c.c.

Koch-Ehrlich aniline-water solutions. To about 100 c.c. of distilled water aniline oil is added, drop by drop, and the solution thoroughly shaken after each addition, until it is of an opaque appearance. It is then filtered through moistened filter-paper until the filtrate is perfectly clear. To 100 c.c. of the clear filtrate add 10 c.c. of absolute alcohol and 11 c.c. of the concentrated alcoholic solution of either fuchsin, methylene-blue, or gentian-violet, preferably fuchsin or gentian-violet.

Ziehl's carbolic-fuchsin solution :

Distilled water	100 c.c.
Carbolic acid (crystalline)	5 grammes.
Alcohol	10 c.c.
Fuchsin in substance	1 gramme.

Or it may be prepared by adding to a 5 per cent. watery solution of carbolic acid the saturated alcoholic solution of fuchsin until a metallic lustre appears on the surface of the fluid.

Both the Koch-Ehrlich and the Ziehl solutions decompose after having been made for a time ; particularly is this the case with the former, so that it is better to prepare them when needed in small quantities than to employ old solutions. Solutions older than fourteen days should not be used.

The three solutions just given may be used for cover-glass preparations in the ordinary way.

In some manipulations it becomes necessary to stain the bacteria very intensely, so that they may retain their color when exposed to the action of decolorizing agents. These methods are usually employed for the purpose of depriving surrounding objects or tissues of their color in order that the stained bacteria may stand out in greater contrast. It is in these cases that the staining solution with which the bacteria are being treated is to be warmed, and in some cases boiled, so as to further increase its penetrating action. When so treated, certain of the bacteria will retain their color, even when exposed to very strong decolorizers. The tubercle bacillus is characterized from all other bacteria, except the bacillus of leprosy, by the tenacity with which it retains its color when treated in this way. It is an organism that is difficult to stain, but when once stained is equally difficult to rob of its color.

METHOD OF STAINING THE TUBERCLE BACILLUS.—Select from the sputum of a tuberculous subject one of the small, white, cheesy masses which it is seen to contain. Spread this upon a cover-slip and dry and fix it in the usual way. The slip is now to be taken by its edge with the forceps and the film covered with a few drops of either the solution of Koch-Ehrlich or of Ziehl. It is then held over the gas-flame, at first some distance away, gradually being brought nearer, until the fluid begins to boil. After it has bubbled up once or twice it is removed from the flame, the excess of staining washed away in a stream of water, and it is then immersed in a 30 per cent. solution of nitric acid in water and allowed to remain there until all the color has disappeared. In some cases this takes longer than in others. One can always determine if decolorization

is complete by washing off the acid in a stream of water. If the preparation is still quite colored it should be again immersed in the acid; if of only a very faint color it may be dipped in alcohol, again washed off in water, and may now be stained with some contrast color. If, for example, the tubercle bacilli have been stained with fuchsin, methylene-blue forms a good contrast stain. In making the contrast stain the steps in the process are exactly those followed in the ordinary staining of cover-slip preparations in general: the slip containing the stained tubercle bacilli is rinsed off carefully in water and a few drops of the methylene-blue solution are placed upon it and allowed to remain for thirty to forty seconds, when it is again rinsed in water and examined microscopically. For the purpose of observing the difference between the behavior of the tubercle bacilli and the other organisms present in the preparation toward this method of staining, it is well to examine the preparation microscopically before the contrast stain is made, then remove it, give it the contrast color, and examine it again. It will be seen that before the contrast color has been given to the preparation the tubercle bacilli will be the only stained objects to be made out, and the preparation will appear devoid of other organisms, but upon examining it after it has received the contrast color, a great many other organisms will now appear; these will take on the second color employed, while the tubercle bacilli will retain their original color. Before decolorization all organisms in the preparation were of the same color, but during the application of the decolorizing solution all except the tubercle bacilli gave up their color. This characteristic, as said, serves to differentiate the tubercle bacillus from

other organisms with which it might be confounded. A number of different methods have been suggested for the staining of tubercle bacilli, but the original method as employed by Koch is so satisfactory in its results that it is not advisable to substitute others for it. The above differs from the original Koch-Ehrlich method for the staining of tubercle bacilli in sputum only in the occasional employment of Ziehl's carbolic-fuchsin solution and in the method of heating the preparation with the staining fluid upon it.

As Nuttall has pointed out, however, the strong acid decolorizer used in this method can be with advantage replaced by much more dilute solutions, as a certain number of the bacilli are entirely decolorized by the too energetic action of the strong acids. He recommends the following method of decolorization: After staining the slip or section in the usual way, pass it through three alcohols; it is then to be washed out in a solution composed of

Water	150 c.c.
Alcohol	50 c.c.
Concen. sulphuric acid	20 to 30 drops.

From this they are removed to water and carefully rinsed. The remaining steps in the process are the same as those given in the other methods.

GABBETT'S METHOD for the staining of tubercle bacilli recommends itself because of its simplicity and the rapidity with which it can be performed. By many it is considered the best method for routine employment. It consists in staining the cover-slips, prepared in the manner given, for from two to five minutes in a cold carbolic-fuchsin solution, after which they are subjected to the action of Gabbett's methy-

lene-blue sulphuric acid solution. This latter consists of

Sulphuric acid, strength 25 per cent.	100 c.c.
Methylene-blue, in substance	1 to 2 grammes.

They are then rinsed off in water and are ready for examination. The tubercle bacilli will be stained red by the fuchsin, while all other bacteria, cell nuclei, etc., will be tinted blue.

GRAM'S METHOD.—Another differential method of staining which is very commonly employed is that known as Gram's method. In this method the objects to be stained are treated with an aniline-water solution of gentian-violet made after the formula of Koch-Ehrlich. After remaining in this for twenty to thirty minutes they are immersed in an iodine solution composed of

Iodine	1 gramme.
Potassium iodide	2 grammes.
Distilled water	300 c.c.

In this they remain for about five minutes; they are then transferred to alcohol and thoroughly rinsed. If they are still of a violet color they are again treated with the iodine solution followed by alcohol, and this is continued until no trace of violet color is visible to the naked eye. They may then be examined, or a contrast color of carmine or Bismarck-brown may be given them.

This method is particularly useful in demonstrating the capsule which is seen to surround some bacteria, particularly the micrococcus lanceolatus of pneumonia.

GLACIAL ACETIC ACID METHOD.—Another method which may be employed for demonstrating the presence of the capsule surrounding certain organisms, is to

prepare the cover-slips in the ordinary way, then cover the layer of bacteria upon them with glacial acetic acid, which is instantly poured off (not washed off in water), and the aniline-water gentian-violet solution dropped upon them; this is allowed to remain three or four minutes, is poured off, and a few drops more are added, and lastly the slip is washed off in water. A very clear, sharply-cut picture usually follows this method of procedure.

STAINING OF SPORES.—We have learned that one of the points by which spores may be recognized is their refusal to take up staining substances when applied in the ordinary way. They may, however, be stained by special methods; of these one that has given very satisfactory results in our hands is as follows: The cover-slip is to be prepared from the material containing the spores in the ordinary way, dried, and fixed. It is then to be held by its edge with the forceps, and its surface covered with Löffler's alkaline methylene-blue solution. It is then held over the Bunsen flame until the fluid boils; it is then removed, and after a few seconds is heated again. This is continued for about one minute, after which it is washed off in water and dipped five or six times in alcohol containing about 0.2 to 0.3 per cent. of hydrochloric acid. This is rinsed off in water and the preparation is now stained for from eight to ten seconds in aniline-water fuchsin solution (Koch-Ehrlich solution), and finally again washed in water. By this method the spores are of a blue color and the body of the cell red.

By another process the cover-slip is floated, bacteria down, upon the surface of a watch-crystalful of freshly prepared Koch-Ehrlich solution of fuchsin. This is

then held by its edge with the forceps about 2 cm. above a very small flame of a Bunsen burner, care being taken that the flame touches only the centre of the bottom of the crystal. After a few seconds the crystal is elevated gradually until it is about 6 to 8 cm. above the flame, then it is slowly moved down to the flame again, and this up-and-down movement is continued until the staining fluid begins to boil. As soon as a few bubbles have been given off it is held aside for a minute or two and the process of heating is repeated. When the boiling begins, the crystal is held aside again for a minute or two. The crystal is heated in this way for about five or six consecutive times. When the fluid has stood for about five minutes after the last boiling, the preparation is transferred, without washing in water, into a second watch-crystal containing the following decolorizing solution :

Absolute alcohol	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	100 c.c.
Hydrochloric acid	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	3 c.c.

In this solution it is placed, bacteria up, and the vessel is tilted from side to side for about one minute. It is then removed, washed in water, and stained with the methylene-blue solution. The spores will be stained red and the body of the cells will be blue.

MOELLER'S METHOD FOR STAINING SPORES.—A method that has recently been published by Moeller is designed to favor the penetration of the coloring material through the spore membrane by macerating the spores in a solution of chromic acid before staining them. It is as follows :

The cover-slips are prepared in the usual way, or the fixing may be accomplished with absolute alcohol instead of high temperatures. The preparation is then

held for two minutes in chloroform, then washed off in water, then placed for from one-half to two minutes in a 5 per cent. solution of chromic acid; again washed off in water, and now stained in carbolic fuchsin. In the process of staining, the slip is taken by the corner with the forceps, and carbolic fuchsin is dropped upon the side containing the spores. It is then held over the flame until it boils, and then held some distance above the flame for one minute. The staining fluid is then poured off and the preparation is completely decolorized in 5 per cent. sulphuric acid, again washed off in water, and finally stained for thirty seconds in the watery methylene-blue solution. The spores will be red, the body of the cells blue.

In this method the object of the preliminary exposure to chloroform is to dissolve away any crystals of lecithin, cholesterin, or fat that may be in the preparation, and which when stained might give rise to confusion.

It must be remembered that there are conspicuous differences in the behavior of spores of different bacteria to staining methods. Some stain readily by either of the methods especially devised for this purpose, while others can hardly be stained at all, or only with the greatest difficulty, by any of the known processes.

LÖFFLER'S METHOD FOR STAINING FLAGELLA.—For the demonstration of the locomotive apparatus possessed by motile bacteria we are indebted to Löffler. By a special method of staining in which the use of mordants played the essential part, he has shown that these organisms possess very delicate, hair-like appendages, by the lashing movements of which they propel

themselves through the fluid in which they are located. The method as given by Löffler is as follows :

(1) It is essential that the bacteria be evenly and *not too numerously* distributed upon the cover-slip. The slips must therefore be carefully cleansed. (See *Löffler's method* of cleaning cover-slips.) Five or six of the carefully cleansed cover-slips are to be placed in a line on the table, and on the centre of each slip a very small drop of tap-water is placed. From the culture to be examined a minute portion is transferred to the first slip and carefully mixed with the drop of water ; from this mixture a small portion is transferred to the second, and from the second to the third slip, and so on—in this way insuring a dilution of the number of organisms present in the preparation.

These slips are then dried and fixed in the ordinary way. They are next to be warmed in the following solution :

Tannic acid solution in water (20 acid, 80 water)	10 c.c.
Cold saturated solution of ferro-sulphate	5 c.c.
Saturated watery or alcoholic solution of fuchsin	1 c.c.

This solution represents the mordant. A few drops of it are to be placed upon the film of bacteria on the cover-slip, which is then to be held over the flame until the solution begins to steam. It should not be boiled. After steaming, the mordant is washed off in water and finally in alcohol. The bacteria are then to be stained in a saturated aniline-water fuchsin solution.

When treated in this way different bacteria behave differently : the flagella of some stain readily in the above solutions ; others require the addition of an alkali in varying quantities ; while others stain best after the addition of acids. To meet these conditions an exact

1 per cent. solution of caustic soda in water must be prepared, and also a solution of sulphuric acid in water of such strength that one cubic centimetre will be exactly neutralized by one cubic centimetre of the alkaline solution.

For different bacteria which have been studied by this method, the one or the other of these solutions is to be added to the mordant in the following proportions.

Of the acid solution :

For the bacillus of Asiatic cholera	$\frac{1}{4}$ to 1 drop.
For the spirillum rubrum	9 drops.

Of the alkaline solution :

For the bacillus of typhoid fever	1 c.c.
For the bacillus subtilis	28 to 30 drops.
For the bacillus of malignant oedema	36 to 37 "

For other organisms one must determine whether the results are better after the addition of acid or alkali, and how much of either is required. In general it may be said that bacteria which produce acids in the media in which they are growing require the addition of alkalies to the mordant, while those that produce alkalies require acids to be added. By following Löffler's directions the delicate, hair-like flagellæ on motile organisms may be rendered plainly visible.

There are several points and slight modifications in connection with this method that require to be emphasized in order to insure success: The solutions should be perfectly fresh; after mixing the tannic acid, iron, and fuchsin solutions together they should be filtered before using; when placed on the cover-slip and held over the flame *never heat to the boiling-point; indeed, the best results are obtained when the preparation is held high*

above the flame and removed from it at the first evidence of vaporization, or, better still, a little before this point is reached. We have derived no advantage from the addition of acids or alkalies to the mordant as recommended by Löffler, but obtain with a fair degree of regularity satisfactory results through the use of the neutral mordant alone.¹

STAINING IN GENERAL.

The physics of staining and decolorization is hardly a subject to be discussed in a book of this character, but, as Kühne has pointed out, solutions which favor the production of diffusion currents facilitate intensity of staining, and by a similar process increase the energy of decolorizing agents. For example, tissues which are transferred from water into watery solutions of the coloring matters are less intensely stained and more easily decolorized than when transferred from alcohol into watery staining fluids; for the same reason tissues stained in watery solutions of the dyes do not become decolorized so readily when placed in water as when placed in alcohol.

The diffusion of staining solutions into the protoplasm of dried bacteria, as found upon cover-slip preparations, is much greater and more rapid than when the same bacteria are located in the interstices of tissues. These differences are not in the bacteria themselves, but in the obstruction to diffusion offered by the tissues in which they are located.

The result of absence of diffusion may easily be illus-

¹ I am indebted to Dr. James Homer Wright, Thomas Scott Fellow in Hygiene, 1892-93, University of Pennsylvania, for the suggestions in connection with the modification of this method.

trated. Prepare a cover-slip preparation, dry it carefully, fix it, and without allowing water to get on it from any source, attempt to stain it with a solution of the dyes in *absolute alcohol*, washing it out subsequently with absolute alcohol; the result is negative. The absolute alcohol does not possess the property of diffusing into the dried tissues, and hence, as has been stated before, alcoholic solutions of the staining dyes should not be employed. The staining dyes should always be watery.¹

DECOLORIZING SOLUTIONS.—As regards the employment of decolorizing agents, it must always be borne in mind that objects which are easily stained are also easily decolorized, and those that can be caused to take up the staining material only with difficulty are also very difficult to rob of their color. The most common decolorizer in use is probably alcohol—not absolute alcohol, but alcohol containing more or less of water. Water alone has this property, but in a much lower degree than dilute alcohol. On the other hand, a much more energetic decolorization than that possessed by either alone can be obtained by alternate exposures to alcohol and water. More energetic in their decolorizing action than either water or alcohol, are solutions of the acids. They appear, particularly when they are alcoholic solutions, to diffuse rapidly into tissues and bacteria and very quickly extract the staining materials which have been deposited there. For this reason these solutions should be employed with much care.

¹ In the beginning of this chapter it was stated that the saturated alcoholic solutions of the dyes do not serve as stains for bacteria. It must be remembered that this holds only when absolute alcohol and perfectly dry coloring matters have been used. If but a small proportion of water is present, the bacteria may be stained with these solutions.

Very dilute acetic acid robs tissues and bacteria of their staining with remarkable activity ; still more energetic are solutions of the mineral acids, and particularly, as has been said, when this action is accompanied by the decolorizing properties of alcohol.

The acid solutions that are commonly employed are :

Acetic acid in from 0.1 per cent. to 5 per cent. watery solution.

Nitric acid in from 20 per cent. to 30 per cent. watery solution.

Hydrochloric acid in 3 per cent. solution in alcohol.

STAINING OF BACTERIA IN TISSUES.

In staining tissues for the purpose of demonstrating the bacteria which they may contain, a number of points must be borne in mind : the conditions which favor the diffusion of the staining fluids into the bacteria are now not so favorable to rapid staining as they were when the bacteria alone were present upon cover-slips ; the staining of tissues, therefore, requires a longer exposure to the dyes than does that of cover-slips. In tissues, too, there are other substances beside the bacteria which become stained, and these, unless robbed in whole or in part of their color, may so mask the stained bacteria as to render them difficult, if not impossible of detection. Tissues must, therefore, always be subjected to some degree of decolorization, and this must be practised without depriving the bacteria of their color.

The details of the methods of decolorization will be described in the section on the technique of staining.

Another point to be remembered in staining tissues is that they can never be heated and retain their struc-

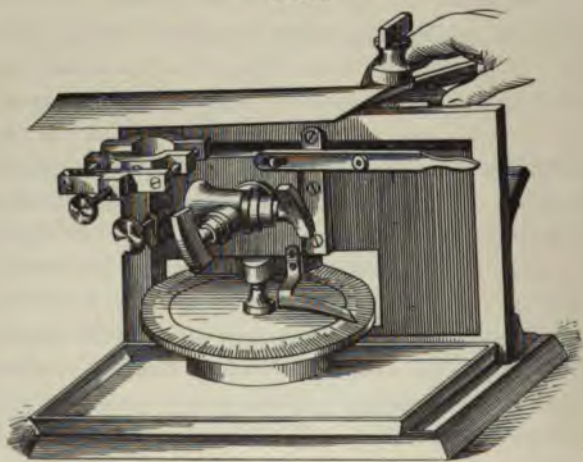
ture, in the same way that one heats cover-slips. The best results are not obtained in efforts to hasten the staining by subjection to high temperatures, but rather by longer exposures at lower temperatures.

HARDENING THE TISSUES.—The bits of tissue—not greater than 1 cm. cube—are to be placed, as fresh as possible, in absolute alcohol. The bit of tissue should rest upon a pad of cotton or filter-paper in the bottle containing the alcohol, in order that it may be elevated and surrounded by the part of the alcohol which is specifically the lightest, and consequently contains least water. The alcohol abstracts water from the tissue, and, as the dehydration proceeds, the tissue becomes accordingly more and more dense. When of about the consistency of fresh solid rubber, or preferably not quite so dense, it is ready to cut. A small portion of about 0.5 cm. cube should be cemented to a bit of cork with ordinary mucilage, and allowed to remain in the open air for a minute or two for the mucilage to harden. Alcohol should be dropped upon it occasionally, to prevent drying of the tissue. When the mucilage is hard, the cork with the piece of tissue upon it may be left in alcohol over night, and on the following day the sections may be cut.

SECTION-CUTTING.—This is accomplished by the use of an instrument known as a microtome. In Fig. 31 is seen the form now commonly employed. It is known by the name of the maker, as Schanze's microtome. It is an apparatus provided with a clamp for holding the cork upon which the tissue is cemented and also a sliding clamp which carries a knife. The tissue is clamped horizontally, and the knife is caused to slide across its upper surface, also in the horizontal direction.

Beneath the clamp for holding the tissue is a milled disk, by means of which a screw is caused to revolve, and in revolving raises or lowers the clamp holding the tissue, so that the tissue may be brought closer to or farther from the plane in which the knife slides. By this arrangement sections of any desired thickness can be cut by turning the milled disk with the one hand and causing the knife to traverse the tissue with the other.

FIG. 31.



Schanze's microtome.

The tissue and the knife-blade should be kept wet with alcohol, so that the sections may float upon the blade of the knife, from which they can be easily removed without tearing, with a curved needle or a camel-hair pencil. As the sections are cut they are placed in a dish containing alcohol.

There are some tissues which, by reason of their histological structure, do not become sufficiently dense

when exposed to alcohol to permit of their being cut in the above way. It becomes necessary to render them more solid by filling their interstices with some substance that neither interferes with their structure nor prevents their being cut into sections. They must be "imbedded," as this process is called.

Imbedding in celloidin. Most convenient for this purpose is celloidin, a body somewhat similar to collodion, soluble in a mixture of equal parts of alcohol and ether, as well as in absolute alcohol.

After hardening in alcohol the tissue to be imbedded is placed into a mixture of equal parts of absolute alcohol and ether and left there for twenty-four hours. It is then transferred to celloidin. Two solutions of celloidin are to be employed, the one a thin solution in a mixture of equal parts of absolute alcohol and ether, the other a thick solution in the same solvent. Into the thin solution, which should be of about the consistence of very thin syrup, the tissue is placed from the absolute alcohol and ether, and allowed to remain there for twenty-four hours. It is then placed in the thick solution for about a day. From this it may be removed and placed immediately upon a bit of cork or a block of wood. The adherent celloidin will act as a cement, and as it hardens rapidly, the tissue is soon fast to the cork. It is then left in 60 per cent. alcohol for twenty-four hours to complete the solidification of the celloidin after which sections may be cut in the way just described for tissues not so treated.

Imbedding in paraffin. After bits of the tissue not larger than a cubic centimetre have been hardened in the usual way, they are placed in fresh *absolute* alcohol for twenty-four hours to complete the process. From

this they are transferred to pure turpentine, and kept in a warm oven at a temperature not exceeding 35° to 38° C. Here they remain for a time sufficient for them to become thoroughly saturated with the turpentine, as is recognized by the transparent appearance that they assume. From this they are placed into paraffin that is melted at 53° C. and allowed to remain in this for three or four hours. They are then transferred to a small paper or metal mould, or a pill-box, and melted paraffin is poured over them. When the paraffin has become solid the mould or pill-box is removed from around it, the excess of paraffin removed from about the imbedded tissue, and the latter is ready for cutting.

When the sections are cut they are freed from paraffin by exposing them to turpentine; the latter is removed by washing in alcohol and the sections can now be stained in the ordinary way. In cutting sections from tissues that have been imbedded in paraffin the long axis of the knife should be at nearly right angles to the direction in which the knife travels. For bacteriological purposes the method of imbedding in paraffin does not as a rule give such good results as when the celloidin method is employed. In this work, therefore, the latter is usually preferred.

STAINING OF THE SECTIONS.—The sections when cut may be stained in a variety of ways. The ordinary watery solutions of the three common basic aniline dyes—fuchsin, gentian-violet, or methylene-blue—or, what is better, the alkaline methylene-blue solution of Löffler, may be employed for general use.

The acid aniline dyes, as well as some of the vegetable coloring matters, are essentially nuclear stains, and are not applicable to the staining of bacteria.

Into a watch-glass containing either of the staining solutions mentioned, the sections are to be placed after having been in water for about one minute. They remain in the staining solutions for from five to eight minutes. They are then removed, rinsed in water, and partly decolorized in 0.1 per cent. acetic acid for only a few seconds; again washed out in water, then in absolute alcohol for a few seconds, and from this again into absolute alcohol for the same time, and finally into cedar oil or xylol. Here they remain for from one-half to three-fourths of a minute. They are now to be carefully spread out upon a spatula, which is held in the fluid under them, and without draining off the fluid are transferred to a clean glass slide. This must be done carefully to avoid tearing. The easiest way to do this is to hold the spatula on which the section floats in one hand, with its point just touching the surface of the glass slide, and then with a needle pull the section gently off upon the slide. The fluid comes with it, and the floating section may be easily spread out into a flat surface. The excess of fluid is taken up with blotting-paper, after which a drop of xylol-balsam is placed upon the centre of the section, and is then covered with a thin, clean cover-slip. It is now ready for examination.

Each step in the above process has its definite object. The sections are placed in water before staining in order that the diffusion of the staining solution into the tissues may be diminished; otherwise our efforts at rendering the bacteria more conspicuous by decolorizing the tissues in which they are located would rob the bacteria of their color as well.

The acetic acid and also the alcohol are decolorizers, and are directed toward the excess of staining in the

tissues. The cedar oil or xylol are bodies which mix on the one hand with alcohol, on the other with balsam. They are known as "clearing fluids," and not only serve to differentiate the component parts of the tissue but fill up the gap that would otherwise be left in the process, for a section cannot be mounted in balsam directly from alcohol; the two bodies do not mix perfectly.

A number of clearing agents are in general use; in fact, almost all the essential oils come under this head. There is one—oil of cloves—which is very commonly used in histological work, but it must not be employed in tissues containing bacteria. It not only extracts too much color from the bacteria, but causes them to fade after the sections have been mounted for a time.

When the section thus stained and mounted is examined microscopically, it may be found that the tissues still possess so much color that the bacteria are not visible, in which case they have not been decolorized sufficiently; or, on the other hand, both bacteria and tissues may have parted with their stains—then decolorization has been carried too far. In either case the fault must be remedied in the manipulation of the next section to be mounted.

In short, the steps in the process of staining sections in general are these:

- a.* From alcohol into distilled water for one minute.
- b.* Into the staining fluid for from five to eight minutes.
- c.* Into water for from three to five minutes.
- d.* Into 0.1 per cent. acetic acid for about one-half minute.
- e.* Absolute alcohol for a few seconds.
- f.* Absolute alcohol for a few seconds.

- g. Xylol for about one-half minute.
- h. Removal with spatula or section-lifter to slide.
- i. Removal of excess of xylol.
- j. Mounting in xylol-balsam.

The section must be lifted from one vessel to the other by means of either a curved needle or a glass rod drawn out to a fine end and bent in the form of a curved needle.

By the above process of staining, which can be practised as a general method for most bacteria in tissues, the nuclei of the tissue cells, as well as the bacteria, will be more or less deeply stained.

SPECIAL METHODS OF STAINING BACTERIA IN TISSUES.—For purposes of contrast stains it sometimes becomes necessary to completely, or nearly completely, decolorize the tissues and leave the bacteria unaltered in color. For this purpose special methods depending on the staining peculiarities of the bacteria under consideration have been devised.

Gram's method with tissues. One of the most commonly employed differential stains is that of Gram. In general, it is practised in the way given for its employment on cover-slip preparations with some slight modifications.

In this method the sections are to be placed from water into a solution of aniline-water gentian-violet, as prepared by the Koch-Ehrlich formula, but which has been diluted with about one-third its volume of water. In this the sections remain for about ten minutes, preferably in a warm place, at a temperature of about 40° C. They should never, under any conditions, be boiled.

From this they are washed alternately in the iodine solution and alcohol, occasionally renewing the stained with clean alcohol, until all color has been extracted

from them. They are then brought for one minute into a dilute watery solution of eosin or safranin, or Bismarck-brown; again washed out for a few seconds in alcohol, and finally for one-fourth minute in absolute alcohol. From this they are transferred to xylol for a half-minute. The remaining steps in the process are the same as those given in the general method. In some cases better results are obtained by reversing the steps in the process and staining the bacteria last, for then the frequent decolorizing action of the alcohol on the bacteria is diminished; thus, place the sections from alcohol into eosin, safranin or Bismarck-brown for a few minutes, then wash out in 50 per cent. alcohol, then for from three to five minutes in the dilute aniline-water gentian-violet solution, then into the iodine bath, after three minutes wash out in alcohol, and, finally, for one-fourth minute in absolute alcohol, and then into the xylol, from which they may be mounted. The organisms which may be stained by this method are mic. tetragenus, b. diphtheriæ, b. anthracis, staph. pyogenes aureus, and a few others. It cannot be successfully employed with the bacillus of typhoid fever.

Staining with dahlia and decolorizing with soda solution. Another method that is not very commonly employed, though the results obtained by its use are in many cases very satisfactory, is to stain the tissues in a strong watery solution of dahlia (about one-fourth saturated) for from ten to fifteen minutes; from this they are brought into a 2 per cent. solution of sodium or potassium carbonate, and from this into alcohol, alternating from the one to the other, until the section is almost colorless. From the alcohol they are rinsed out in water and then brought into a dilute watery solution

of either eosin, Bismarck-brown, or safranin for one minute, then washed out in alcohol, finally in absolute alcohol, and then into xylol, from which they may be mounted in the manner given.

Especially brilliant results are obtained when tissues containing anthrax bacilli are stained by this process; the bacilli will be of a deep blue color, while the surrounding tissues will be of the color used as contrast.

Kühne's carbolic methylene-blue method. Stain the sections in the following solution for from one-half to one hour :

Methylene-blue, in substance	1.5 grammes.
Absolute alcohol	10 c.c.

Rub up thoroughly in a mortar, and when the blue is completely dissolved, add gradually 100 c.c. of a 5 per cent. solution of carbolic acid. (The solution decomposes after a short time; it should be made fresh when needed.) From this the sections are washed out in water, then in 1.5 to 2 per cent. hydrochloric acid in water, from this into a solution of lithium carbonate of the strength of six to eight drops of a concentrated watery solution of the salt to ten drops of water, and from this again thoroughly washed in water; then into absolute alcohol containing enough methylene-blue in substance to give it a tolerably dense color, then for a few minutes into aniline oil to which a little methylene-blue in substance has been added; then completely rinse out in pure aniline oil, from this into thymol or oil of turpentine for two minutes, and then into xylol, from which they are mounted in xylol-balsam. The advantages of this method are that it is generally applicable, and by its use the bacteria are not robbed of their color, whereas the tissues are sufficiently decolor-

which renders the bacteria visible and admit of the use of a camera lucida.

Weigert's modification of Gram's method for sections. Stain the sections in the Koch-Ehrlich aniline-water gentian violet solution for five or six minutes; wash out in water or physiological salt solution (0.6 to 0.7 per cent. solution of sodium chloride in distilled water); transfer them with the section-lifter to the slide; take up the excess of fluid by gently pressing upon the flat section with blotting-paper; treat the section with the iodine solution used by Gram; take up the excess of the solution with blotting-paper; cover the section with aniline oil—this not only differentiates the component parts of the section, but dehydrates as well; wash out the aniline oil with xylol, and mount in the usual way in xylol balsam. Or, decolorization with iodine may be omitted, and the sections, after staining in the aniline-water gentian violet for five or six minutes or longer, if necessary, are transferred to the slide without being washed in water or salt solution, or if so only very slightly and rapidly, dried as completely as possible with filter paper, then are decolorized with a mixture of aniline oil (one part) and xylol (two parts). This is the delicate part of the process and can be watched under the low power of the microscope; when decolorization is sufficient (repeated applications of the aniline oil and xylol mixture are generally necessary), pure xylol replaces the mixture, and the specimen is finally mounted in xylol balsam. Unless all the aniline oil is replaced by the xylol the specimen will not keep well. In this process the aniline oil is really the decolorizer and has the valuable property of absorbing a certain amount of water, so that dehydration with alcohol is

avoided. This method, while it stains certain bacteria in tissues very satisfactorily, is nevertheless designed especially for the staining of fibrin. Fibrin and hyaline material will be stained deep blue, bacteria a dark violet.

STAINING OF TUBERCLE BACILLI IN TISSUES.—As for the staining of cover-slips, only those methods most commonly employed will be given.

The method of Ehrlich. Stain the sections in aniline-water fuchsin or gentian-violet for twenty-four hours; decolorize in 20 per cent. nitric acid for a few seconds only, the color need not be entirely extracted; then into 70 per cent. alcohol until no more color can be extracted by the alcohol; stain as contrast color in dilute watery methylene-blue, malachite-green, or Bismarck-brown solution; wash out in 90 per cent. alcohol, then in absolute alcohol for a few seconds; clear up in xylol and mount in xylol-balsam.

Method of Ziehl-Neelsen. Stain the sections in warmed carbol-fuchsin solution for one hour; temperature to be about 45° to 50° C. Decolorize for a few seconds in 5 per cent. sulphuric acid, then in 70 per cent. alcohol, and from this on as by the Ehrlich method.

Dry method. For the tubercle bacilli, as for many other organisms in tissues, the following method may be employed if only the presence of organisms is to be detected and the histological condition of the tissues is a matter of no consequence: Bring the sections from water upon a slide or cover-slip, dry, fix, and stain by the methods for cover-slip preparations.

Gray's method. The method employed by Gray at the Army Medical Museum, Washington, D. C., a

description of which is given by Borden, is as follows : The tissue to be stained should be hardened, preferably in alcohol, in pieces not exceeding 1.5 by 1.5 by 1 cm. in size, though tissues hardened by any other of the regular methods can be stained. Alcohol is to be preferred, however, and after its use the bacilli stain more quickly and brilliantly than when one of the other hardening fluids, Müller's, for instance, is employed.

After the tissue has been hardened it is imbedded in *paraffin*, and cut in the usual manner. The sections are then cemented to the slides with a filtered $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. solution of gold label gelatin, to which is added chloral hydrate, in the proportion of 1 per cent., as preservative. Several drops of this are placed on a slide, a section laid on top, and the slide placed in a warming oven, kept at a temperature slightly *below* the melting-point of the *paraffin*. In about five minutes all wrinkles will have been taken out of the section, which will lie perfectly flat and smooth on the surface of the gelatin solution. The slide is then removed from the oven and the surplus fluid poured from it, thus bringing the section down into contact with its surface, after which it is set aside in a place protected from dust, to remain until the section is firmly cemented to it by the drying of the gelatin solution. The drying may be hastened by keeping the slides in an oven below the melting-point of the *paraffin*, but it is best to set the slides aside until the next day, when the sections will be found to be perfectly cemented to them. The *paraffin* is then removed from the section by turpentine, the turpentine by absolute alcohol, the absolute alcohol by 50 per cent. alcohol, and this by water, after which the slides are placed in a 5 per cent. aqueous

solution of potassium bichromate for five minutes. This renders the gelatin insoluble, and prevents the sections from leaving the slides during their necessarily more or less prolonged immersion in the fuchsin stain. The potassium bichromate is washed out with water, and the slides are then placed in a fuchsin stain, which is prepared as follows :

Fuchsin	1.5 grammes.
Absolute alcohol	14 c.c.
Carbolic acid crystals, pure	6 grammes.
Water	100 c.c.

Dissolve the fuchsin in the alcohol and the carbolic acid in the water. Mix the two solutions and let stand for twelve hours, with occasional shaking or stirring, then filter.

The slides are left in this solution a *sufficient* length of time. In tissues properly hardened in alcohol the tubercle bacilli stain very quickly, generally five minutes being sufficient to stain them deeply.

Prolonged immersion in the fuchsin does no harm and insures certainty of results. After a section has been in the stain a sufficient length of time it, with the slide to which it is cemented, is washed in water until the surplus stain is removed ; it is then subjected to the action of a combined decolorizer and contrast stain made as follows :

Methyl-blue	2.25 grammes.
Absolute alcohol	30 c.c.
Sulphuric acid	12 "
Water (distilled)	100 "

Dissolve the methyl-blue in the alcohol, add the acid to the water, mix the two solutions, and let stand, with occasional shaking, for twelve hours, then filter.

This solution is allowed to act upon the tissue for a

few seconds, and as soon as the blue color predominates over the red, as seen by transmitted light, the section is immediately washed in water. Generally the red color reappears and the section must be again subjected to the action of the blue solution and again washed in water. This must be repeated until the blue almost, if not quite completely and permanently, replaces the red stain. This is the most difficult part of the process and entirely satisfactory results are only obtained after some practice. The tendency is usually to not sufficiently replace the fuchsin with the methyl-blue, and in consequence the red color of the bacilli is masked by the red of the surrounding tissues. Unless all acid is thoroughly removed by the final washing in water the stain is not permanent. The section is then completely dehydrated with absolute alcohol, after taking up the excess of water on the slide with blotting-paper. The alcohol is followed by turpentine, and the process is completed by mounting in xylol-balsam.

In case it is desired to stain sections cut by the freezing method, they are placed upon a slide on which a few drops of the gelatin fixative have been placed, and after about five minutes, during which the fixative will have penetrated the section, the surplus is poured from beneath the section. The slides are then set aside for the gelatin to harden by drying, and after drying they are placed in bichromate fluid to render the gelatin insoluble. They are then manipulated in exactly the same manner as the sections cut by the paraffin method.

This method gives equally good results with tissues containing the lepra bacillus as with those containing tubercle bacilli.



CHAPTER XI.

Systematic study of an organism—Points to be considered in identifying an organism as a definite species.

AFTER isolating an organism by the plate method, considerable work is necessary in order to establish its identity as a definite species.

It must possess certain morphological and cultural peculiarities, which must be constant under constant conditions.

Its form at different stages must always be the same. Its ability or inability to produce spores must not vary under proper conditions. Its growth upon the different media under constant conditions of temperature and reaction must always present the same outward appearances. The reactions given by it to the media in which it is growing must follow a fixed rule. Its power to produce liquefaction of the gelatin, or to grow upon it without bringing about this change, must always be the same. Its motility or non-motility, and, if motile, the number and position of its organs of locomotion, must be determined. Its production of certain chemical products must be detected by chemical analysis. Its behavior toward oxygen—*i. e.*, does it require this gas for its growth? is this gas an indifferent factor? or by its presence are the life processes of the organism checked?—must be decided. Its behavior under varying conditions of temperature and under the influence of different chemical bodies, as well as its growth in media of

different reactions, are to be studied. The property of producing fermentation with the liberation of gases must be ascertained; if it produces pigment, what are the conditions favorable and unfavorable to this function; and lastly, we must consider its behavior when introduced into the bodies of animals used for experimental work—*i. e.*, is it a disease-producing organism, or does it belong to the group of innocent saprophytes?

We have learned the methods of obtaining colonies, and have acquainted ourselves with some of the peculiarities by which they are distinguished from one another. The next important step is to determine the morphology of the individuals composing these colonies as well as their relation to each other in the colony. These points are decided by microscopic examination of bits of the colony which are transferred to thin glass cover-slips, upon which they are dried, stained, and mounted. Cover-slips for this purpose are prepared in two ways: either by taking up a bit of the colony on a platinum needle, smearing it upon a cover-slip, staining it, and examining it—by which only the morphology of the individuals can be made out—or by the method of “impression cover-slip preparations,” by which not only the morphology, but also the relation of the organisms to one another in the colony can be determined. The details of these methods will be found in the chapter on the methods of staining.

MICROSCOPIC EXAMINATION OF PREPARATIONS.

THE DIFFERENT PARTS OF THE MICROSCOPE.—Before describing the process of examining preparations microscopically, a few definitions of the terms

used in referring to the microscope may not be out of place.

The ocular or eye-piece is the lens at which the eye is placed in looking through the instrument.

The objective is the lens which is at the distal end of the barrel of the instrument, and which serves to magnify the object to be examined.

The stage is the shelf or platform of the microscope on which the object rests.

The reflector is the mirror placed beneath the stage, which serves to direct the light to the object examined.

The coarse adjustment is the rack-and-pinion arrangement by which the barrel of the microscope can be quickly raised or lowered.

The fine adjustment serves to raise and lower the barrel of the instrument very slowly and gradually.

For the microscopic study of bacteria it is essential that the microscope be provided with an oil-immersion system and a sub-stage condensing apparatus.

The Oil-immersion or Homogeneous System consists in an objective so constructed that it can only be used when the media through which the light passes in entering it are all of the same index of refraction—i. e., are *homogeneous*. This is accomplished by interposing between the face of the lens and the cover slip covering the object to be examined a body which refracts the light in the same way as do the glass slide, the cover-slip, and the glass of which the objective is made. For this purpose a drop of oil of the same index of refraction as the glass is placed upon the face of the lens, and the examinations are made through this oil. There is thus no loss of light from deflection, as is the case in the dry systems.

The *sub-stage condensing apparatus* is a system of lenses situated beneath the central opening of the stage. They serve to condense the light passing from the reflector to the object in such a way that it is focussed upon the object, thus furnishing the greatest amount of illumination. Between the condenser and reflector is placed an adjustable diaphragm, the aperture of which can be regulated, as circumstances require, to permit of either a very small or very large amount of light passing to the object.

MICROSCOPIC EXAMINATION OF COVER-SLIPS.—The stained cover-slip is to be examined with the oil-immersion objective, and with the diaphragm of the sub-stage condensing apparatus open to its full extent. The object gained by allowing the light to enter in such a large volume is that the contrast produced by the colored bacteria in the brightly illuminated field is much more conspicuous than when a smaller amount of light is thrown upon them. This is true not only for stained bacteria on cover-slips, but likewise for their differentiation from surrounding objects when they are located in tissues. With *unstained* bacteria and tissues, on the contrary, the structure can best be made out by reducing the bundle of light-rays to its smallest amount, and in this way favoring, *not color contrast*, but contrasts which appear as *lights and shadows* due to the differences in permeability to light of the various parts of the material under examination.

STEPS IN EXAMINING STAINED PREPARATIONS WITH THE OIL-IMMERSION SYSTEM.—Place upon the centre of the cover-slip which covers the preparation a small drop of immersion oil. Place the slide upon the centre of the stage of the microscope. With the coarse

adjustment lower the oil-immersion objective until it *just touches* the drop of oil. Open the illuminating apparatus to its full extent. Then, with the eye to the microscope and the hand on the fine adjustment, turn the adjusting screw toward *the right* until the field becomes somewhat colored in appearance. When this is seen, proceed more slowly in the same direction, and, after one or two turns, the object will be in focus. *Do not remove the eye from the instrument until this has been accomplished.*

Then, with one hand upon the fine adjustment and the thumb and index finger of the other hand holding lightly the slide by its end, the slide may be moved about under the objective. At the same time the screw of the fine adjustment must be turned back and forth so that the different levels of the preparation may one after the other be brought into focus. In this way the whole section or preparation may be inspected. When the examination is finished, raise the objective from the preparation by turning the screw of the *coarse* adjustment *toward you*. Remove the preparation from the stage, and, with a fine silk cloth or handkerchief, *wipe very gently and carefully* the oil from the face of the lens. The lens is then unscrewed from the microscope and placed in the case intended for its reception.

During work, of course, the lens need not be cleaned and put away after each examination; but when the work for the day is over, an immersion lens must always be protected in this way. Under no circumstances should it be allowed to remain in the immersion oil or exposed to dust for any length of time.

EXAMINATION OF UNSTAINED PREPARATIONS.—
“*Hanging drops.*” It frequently becomes necessary to

examine bacteria in the unstained condition. The circumstances calling for this arise while studying the multiplication of cells, the germination of spores, the formation of spores, and the absence or presence of motility.

In this method the organisms to be studied are suspended in a drop of salt solution or bouillon in the centre of a cover-slip. This is then placed, drop down, upon an object-glass in the centre of which a hollow or depression is ground (Fig. 32). The slip is held in position by a thin layer of vaselin, which may be painted

FIG. 32.



Hollow ground-glass slide for observing bacteria in hanging drops.

around the margins of the depression. This not only prevents the slip from moving from its position during examination, but also prevents drying by evaporation if the preparation is to be observed for any length of time. This is known as the "hanging-drop" method of examination or cultivation. It is indispensable for the purposes mentioned, and at the same time requires considerable care in its manipulation. The fluid is so transparent that the cover-slip is often broken and the face of the objective injured by its being brought down upon the preparation before one is aware that the focal distance has been reached. This may be avoided by grasping the slide with the left hand and moving it back and forth under the objective as it is brought down toward the object. As soon as the *least pressure* is felt upon the slide the objective must be raised, otherwise

the cover-slip will be broken and the lens may be rendered worthless.

A safer plan is to bring the *edge* of the drop into the centre of the field with one of the higher power dry lenses. When this is accomplished, substitute the immersion for the dry system, and the edge of the drop can now easily be found.

In examining bacteria by this method there is a possibility of error that must be guarded against. All microscopic insoluble particles in suspension in fluids possess a peculiar tremor or vibratory motion, the so-called "Brownian motion." This is very apt to give the impression that the organisms under examination are motile, when in truth they are not so, their movement in the fluid being due only to this molecular tremor.

The difference between the motion of bodies undergoing this molecular tremor and that possessed by certain living bacteria is that the former particles never move from their place in the field, while the living bacteria alter their position in relation to the surrounding organisms, and may dart from one position in the field to another. With some cases the true movement of bacteria is very slow and undulating, while in others it is rapid and darting. The molecular tremor may be seen with non-motile and with dead organisms.

NOTE.—Prepare three hanging-drop preparations—one from a drop of dilute India-ink, a second from a culture of micrococci, and a third from a culture of the bacillus of typhoid fever. In what way do they differ?

STUDY OF SPORE-FORMATION.—The hanging-drop method just mentioned is not only employed for the detection of the motility of an organism, but also for the study of its spore-forming properties.

Since with *aërobie* organisms spore-formation occurs, as a rule, only in the presence of oxygen, and is induced more by limitation of the nutrition of the organisms than by any other factor, it is essential that these two points should be borne in mind in preparing the drop cultures in which the process is to be studied. For this reason the drop of bouillon should be small and the air-chamber relatively large.

The cover-slip and hollow-ground slide should be carefully sterilized, and with a sterilized platinum loop a very small drop of bouillon is placed in the centre of the cover-slip. The slip is then inverted over the hollow depression in the sterilized object-glass and sealed with vaselin. The most convenient method of performing this last step in the process is to paint a ring of vaselin around the edges of the hollow in the slide, and then, without taking the cover-slip up from the table upon which it rests, invert the hollow over the drop and press it gently down upon the cover-slip. The vaselin causes the slip to adhere to the slide, so that it can be easily taken up. The drop now hangs in the centre of the small air-tight chamber which exists between the depression in the slide and the cover-slip. (See Fig. 32, page 164.)

A very thin drop of sterilized agar-agar may be substituted for the bouillon. It serves to retain the organisms in a fixed position, and the process may be more easily followed.

As soon as finished, the preparation is to be exam-

ined microscopically, and the condition of the organisms noted. It is then to be retained in a warm chamber especially devised for the purpose and kept under continuous observation. The form of chamber best adapted for the purpose is one which envelops the whole microscope. It is provided with a window through which the light enters, and an arrangement for moving the slide about from the outside. The formation of spores requires a much longer time than the germination of spores into bacilli, but with patience both processes may be satisfactorily observed.

It will be noticed that the description of this process is very much like that which has just been given, but differs from it in one respect, viz., that in this manipulation we are not making a preparation which is simply to be examined and then thrown aside, but it is an actual pure culture, and must be kept as such, otherwise the observation will be worthless. For this reason the greatest care must be observed in the sterilization of all objects employed. Studies upon spore-formation by this method frequently continue over hours, and sometimes days, and contamination must, therefore, be carefully guarded against. The study should be begun with the vegetative form of the organisms; the hanging-drop preparation should, for this reason, always be made from a perfectly fresh culture of the organism under consideration, before time has elapsed for spores to form.

The simple detection of the presence or absence of spore-formation can in many cases be made by other methods. For example, many species of bacteria which possess this property form spores most readily upon media from which it is somewhat difficult for them to

obtain the necessary nutrition; potatoes and agar-agar that have become a little dry offer very favorable conditions, because of the limited area from which the growing bacteria can draw their nutritive supplies and because of the free access which they have to oxygen; for, their growth being on the surface, they are surrounded by this gas unless means are taken to prevent it. By the hanging-drop method, however, more than this simple property may be determined. It is possible not only to detect the stages and steps in the formation of endogenous spores, but when the spores are completely formed by transferring them to a fresh bouillon-drop or drop of agar-agar, preserved in the same way, their germination into mature rods may be seen. The word rods is used because as yet we have no evidence that endogenous spore-formation occurs in any of the other morphological groups of bacteria.

STUDY OF GELATIN CULTURES.—As has been previously stated, the behavior of bacteria toward gelatin differs—some of them producing apparently no alteration in the medium, while others bring about a form of peptonization which results in liquefaction of the gelatin at and around the place at which the colonies are growing. In some instances this liquefaction spreads laterally and downward, causing a saucer-shaped excavation, while in others the colony sinks directly down into the gelatin and may be seen lying at the bottom of a funnel-shaped depression. These differences are constantly employed as one of the means of differentiating otherwise closely allied members of the same family of bacteria. Studies upon the spirillum of Asiatic cholera and a number of closely allied species, for example, reveal a decided difference in the form of liquefac-

tion produced by these different organisms. The slightest detail in this respect must be noted, and its frequency or constancy under different conditions determined.

CULTURES ON POTATO.—A very important feature in the study of an organism is its growth on sterilized potato. Many organisms present appearances under this method of cultivation which alone can almost be considered characteristic. In some cases coarsely lobulated, elevated, dry or moist patches of development occur after a few hours; again, the growth may be finely granular and but slightly elevated above the surface of the potato; at one time it will be dry and dull in appearance, again it may be moist and glistening. Sometimes there is a production of bubbles, owing to fermentation brought about by the growth of the organs.

A most striking form of development on potato is that possessed by the bacillus of typhoid fever and the bacillus of diphtheria. After the inoculation of a potato with either of these organisms there is no naked-eye evidence of a growth in either instance, though microscopic examination of scrapings from the surface of the potato reveals an active multiplication of the organisms which had been planted there. The potato is one of the most important differential media which we possess for this work.

REACTION PRODUCED BY ORGANISMS IN THEIR GROWTH.—The reactions produced in the media by different organisms in the course of their growth are very valuable as means of differentiation.

In some cases these changes are so marked that they are readily detected by the coarser reagents; again they are so slight as to require the employment of the most

delicate indicators. They are sometimes seen to produce at one period of their growth an alkaline, at another period an acid reaction. This is seen in the cultures of the bacillus diphtheriæ of Löffler.

These differences are best seen after the addition to the media in which the organisms are to grow of some of the chemical substances which do not interfere with the development of the organisms, but which under one reaction are of one color, and with an alteration of the reaction become a different color, the change being indicated by the play of colors. Such substances as litmus, in the form of the so-called "litmus tincture," and coralline (rosolic acid) in alcoholic solution have been employed for this purpose. They may be added to the media in the proportions given in the chapter on media, and the alterations in their colors studied with different bacteria. Milk and litmus tincture or peptone solution to which rosolic acid has been added are very favorable media for this experiment.

In milk, coagula will now and then appear as a result of acids produced during the bacterial life, while again acids may be produced and yet no coagulation be noticed.

ANILINE DYES FOR DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS.—The addition to solid media of some of the aniline dyes, fuchsin, methylene-blue, methylene-green, and several others, as well as combinations of these dyes, have been recommended as a means of differentiation of organisms, the differences claimed to be produced consisting of alterations in the color of the media due to oxidizing or reducing properties of the growing bacteria. As yet but little has come from this method of work. It cannot at present be recommended as a reliable means of diagnosis.

BEHAVIOR TOWARD STAINING REAGENTS.—The behavior of certain organisms toward the different dyes and their reactions under special methods of after-treatment serve as aids to their diagnosis. With very few exceptions all bacteria stain readily with the common aniline dyes, but they differ materially in the tenacity with which they retain these colors under the subsequent treatment with decolorizing agents.

The tubercle bacillus and the bacillus of leprosy, for example, are difficult to stain, but when once stained retain their color under the action of such energetic decolorizing agents as alcohol, nitric acid, oxalic acid, etc.

Certain other organisms when stained with a solution of gentian violet in aniline-water, retain their color when treated with such decolorizing bodies as iodine solution and alcohol (Gram's method), while again others are completely decolorized by this method.

Many of them can only be treated with water, or but for a few seconds with alcohol, without losing their color.

It is essential that these peculiarities should be carefully noted in studying an organism.

FERMENTATION.—The production of gas as an indication of fermentation is an accompaniment of the growth of some organisms. This is best studied in media to which 1 to 2 per cent. of grape sugar has been added.

In this experiment the test-tube should be filled to about one-half its volume with agar-agar. The medium is then liquefied, and when at the proper temperature, a small quantity of a pure culture of the organism under consideration should be carefully distributed through it. The tube is then placed into ice-water and rapidly solidified in the vertical position.

When solid it is placed in the incubator. After twenty-four to thirty-six hours, if the organism possesses the property of causing fermentation of sugar, the medium will be dotted everywhere with very small cavities containing the gas that has resulted.

This property of fermentation with production of gas is of such importance as a differential means that latterly considerable attention has been given to it, and those who have been most intimately concerned in the development of our knowledge on the subject do not consider it enough to say that the growth of an organism "is accompanied by the production of gas-bubbles," but that under given conditions we should determine not only the amount of gas produced by the organism under consideration but also its quality. For this purpose Smith¹ recommends the employment of the fermentation-tube used by Einhorn in the quantitative fermentation test for sugar in the urine. It is a tube bent at an acute angle, closed at one end and enlarged with a bulb at the other. At the bend the tube is constricted. To it a glass foot is attached so that the tube may stand upright. (See Fig. 33.) To fill the tube the fluid (they are only used with fluid media) is poured into the bulb until this is about half full. The tube is then tilted until the closed arm is nearly horizontal, so that the air may flow out into the bulb and the fluid flow into the closed arm to take its place. When this has been completely filled enough fluid should be added to cover the lowest expanding portion of the bulb and the opening of the bulb plugged with cotton.

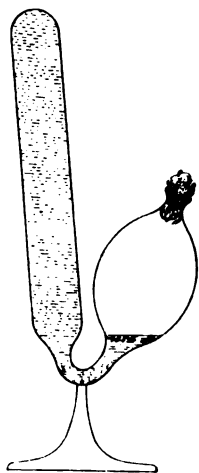
¹ An excellent and exhaustive contribution to this subject has been made by Theobald Smith in "The Wilder Quarter-Century Book," Ithaca, N. Y., 1893.

They are then to be sterilized. During sterilization they are to be maintained in the upright position. Under the influence of heat the tension of the aqueous vapors in the closed arm forces most of the fluid into the bulb. As the tubes cool the fluid returns to its place in the closed arm and fills it again with the exception of a small space at the top which is occupied by the air originally dissolved in the liquid and which has been driven out by the heat. The air-bubble should be tilted out after each sterilization, and finally, after the third exposure to steam this arm of the tube will be free from air.

The medium employed is bouillon containing some fermentable carbohydrate, as glucose, lactose, or saccharose. After inoculation the flasks are placed in the incubator and the amount of gas that collects in the closed arm is, from day to day, noted.

From studies that have been made this gas consists usually of about one part by volume of carbonic acid and two parts by volume of an explosive gas consisting largely of hydrogen. For determining the nature and quantitative relations of these gases Smith¹ recommends the following procedure: "The bulb is completely filled with a 2 per cent. solution of sodium hydroxide (NaOH) and closed tightly with the thumb. The fluid

FIG. 33.



Einhorn's fermentation-tube.

¹ Loc. cit., p. 196.

is shaken thoroughly with the gas and allowed to flow back and forth from bulb to closed branch and the reverse several times to insure intimate contact of the CO_2 with the alkali. Lastly, *before removing the thumb all the gas is allowed to collect in the closed branch*, so that none may escape when the thumb is removed. If CO_2 be present a partial vacuum in the closed branch causes the fluid to rise suddenly when the thumb is removed. After allowing the layer of foam to subside somewhat the space occupied by gas is again measured, and the difference between this amount and that measured before shaking with the sodium hydroxide solution gives the proportion of CO_2 absorbed. The explosive character of the residue is determined as follows: The cotton plug is replaced and the gas from the closed branch is allowed to flow into the bulb and mix with the air there present. The plug is then removed and a lighted match inserted into the mouth of the bulb. The intensity of the explosion varies with the amount of air present in the bulb."

CULTIVATION WITHOUT OXYGEN.—As we have already learned, there is a group of organisms to which the name "anaërobic organisms" has been given, which are characterized by their inability to grow in the presence of oxygen. For the cultivation of the members of this group a number of devices are employed for the exclusion of oxygen from the cultures.

Koch's method. Koch covered the surface of a gelatin plate, which had been previously inoculated, with a thin sheet of sterilized isinglass. The organisms which grew beneath it were supposed to grow without oxygen.

Hesse's method. Hesse poured sterilized oil upon the surface of a culture made by stabbing into a tube of

gelatin. The growth that occurred along the track of the needle was supposed to be anaërobic in nature.

Methods of Liborius. Liborius has suggested two useful methods for this purpose. The one is to fill a test-tube about three-quarters full of gelatin or agar-agar, which, after having been sterilized, is to be kept in a vessel of boiling water for ten minutes to expel all air from it. It is then rapidly cooled in ice-water, and when between 30° and 40° C., still fluid, is to be inoculated and very rapidly solidified. It is then sealed up in the flame. Anaërobic bacteria develop only in the lower layers of the medium. Another method is that in which he employs a special tube, known as "the Liborius tube." Its construction is shown in Fig. 34.

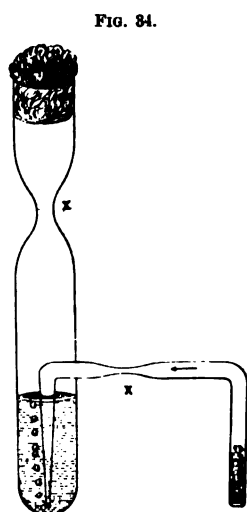


Fig. 34.

Liborius's tube for anaerobic cultures.

Through the side tube hydrogen is passed until all air is expelled; the contracted parts, both of the neck of the tube and the side arm, are then sealed in the flame.¹ This tube can be used for either solid or liquid media, but, owing to its usual small capacity, gives better results with fluid media. (For precautions in using the hydrogen method see note to Fränkel's method, page 178.)

¹ As the tubes come from the maker the contracted parts marked x in the cut are usually so thick as to render the sealing in the flame during the passage of hydrogen somewhat troublesome; it is better to draw them out in the flame quite thin before passing the hydrogen into the tube. This makes the final sealing a matter of no difficulty.

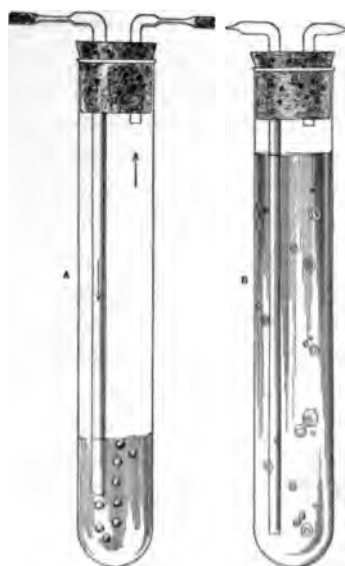
Method of Buchner. The plan suggested by Buchner of allowing the cultures to develop in an atmosphere robbed of its oxygen by pyrogallic acid gives very good results. In this method the culture, which is either a slant or stab culture in a test-tube, is placed—tube, cotton plug, and all—into a larger tube in the bottom of which has been deposited 1 gramme of pyrogallic acid and 10 c.c. of $\frac{1}{10}$ normal¹ caustic potash solution. The larger tube is then tightly plugged with a rubber stopper. The oxygen is quickly absorbed by the pyrogallic acid, and the organisms develop in the remaining constituents of the atmosphere—nitrogen, a small amount of CO₂, and a trace of ammonia.

Method of C. Fränkel. Carl Fränkel suggests the following as a modification of or substitute for the tubes of Liborius: The tube is first prepared as if for an ordinary Esmarch tube. The cotton plug is then replaced by a rubber stopper, through which pass two glass tubes. These must all have been sterilized in the steam sterilizer before using. On the outer side of the stopper these two tubes are bent at right angles to the long axis of the test-tube into which they are to be placed, and both are slightly drawn out in the gas flame. At the outer extremity of both of these tubes

¹ A normal solution is one that contains in a litre as many grammes of the dissolved substance as are indicated by its molecular equivalent. The equivalent is that amount of a chemical compound which possesses the same chemical value as does one atom of hydrogen. For example: One molecule of hydrochloric acid (HCl) has a molecular weight and also an equivalent weight of 36.5; a molecule of this acid has the same chemical value as one atom of hydrogen. Its normal solution is therefore 36.5 grammes to the litre. On the other hand, sulphuric acid (H₂SO₄) contains in each molecule two replaceable hydrogen atoms; its normal solution is not, therefore, 80 grammes (its molecular weight) to the litre, but that amount which would be equivalent chemically to one hydrogen atom, viz., 40 grammes (one-half its molecular weight) to the litre. A normal solution of caustic potash contains as many grammes to the litre as the number of its molecular weight—56.1 grammes to the litre of water.

a plug of cotton is placed ; this is to prevent access of foreign organisms during manipulation. At the inner side of the rubber stopper—that is, the end which is to be inserted into the test-tube—the glass tubes are of different lengths: one reaches to within 0.5 cm. of the bottom of the test-tube, the other is cut off flush with

FIG. 35.



Fränkel's method for the cultivation of anaerobic bacteria.

the under surface of the stopper. This rubber stopper, with its glass tubes, is to replace the cotton plug of the test-tube ; the outer end of the longer glass tube is then connected with a hydrogen generator and hydrogen is allowed to bubble through the gelatin (Fig. 35, A) in the tube until all contained air has been expelled and

its place taken by the hydrogen.¹ When the hydrogen has been bubbling through the gelatin for about five minutes (at least) one can be reasonably sure that all oxygen has been expelled. The drawn-out portions of the tubes can then be sealed in the gas-flame without fear of an explosion. The protruding end of the rubber stopper is then painted around with melted paraffin and the tube rolled in the way given for ordinary Esmarch tubes. A tube thus prepared and containing growing colonies is shown in Fig. 35, B.

The development that now occurs is in an atmosphere of hydrogen, all oxygen having been expelled. During the operation the tube containing the liquefied gelatin should be kept in a water-bath at a temperature sufficiently high to prevent its solidifying and at the same time not high enough to kill the organisms with which it has been inoculated.

One of the obstacles to the successful performance of this method is the bubbling of the gelatin, the foam from which will often fill the exit tube and sometimes be

¹ Before beginning the experiment it is always wise to test the hydrogen, *i. e.*, to see that it is free from oxygen and there is no danger of an explosion, for unless this is done the entire apparatus may be blown to pieces and a serious accident occur. The agents used should be pure zinc, and pure sulphuric acid of about 25 to 30 per cent. strength. When the gas is beginning to be given off, the outlet of the generator should be closed and kept closed until the gas reservoir is quite filled with hydrogen. The outlet should then be opened and the entire volume of gas allowed to escape, care being taken that no flame is in the neighborhood. This should be repeated again, after which a sample of the hydrogen generated should be collected in an inverted test-tube in the ordinary way for collecting gases over water, *viz.*, by filling a test-tube with water, closing its mouth with the thumb, inverting it, and placing its mouth under water, when, after removing the thumb, the water will be kept in it by atmospheric pressure. The hydrogen which is flowing from the open generator may be conveyed to the test-tube by a bit of rubber tubing. When the water has been replaced by the gas, by holding a flame near the open mouth of the test-tube. If no explosion occurs, the hydrogen is safe to use. Should there be an explosion the process must be repeated until the hydrogen simply burns with a colorless flame.

forced from it. This may be obviated by reversing the order of proceeding, viz.: Prepare the Esmarch roll tube in the ordinary way with the organism to be studied, using a relatively small amount of gelatin, so as to have as thin a layer as possible when it is rolled. Then replace the cotton plug with the sterilized rubber stopper carrying the glass tubes through which the hydrogen is to be passed, and allow the hydrogen to flow through just as in the method first given. The gas now passes *over* the solid gelatin instead of *through* it, and consequently no bubbling results. In all other respects the procedure is the same as that given by Fränkel.

Method of Kitasato and Weil. For favoring the anaërobic conditions, Kitasato and Weil have suggested the addition to the culture media of some strong reducing agent. They recommend formic acid in 0.3 to 0.5 per cent.; glucose in 1.5 to 2 per cent., or blue litmus tincture in 5 per cent. by volume. This is, of course, in addition to an atmosphere from which all oxygen has been expelled.

Esmarch's method. Esmarch's plan is to prepare in the usual way a roll tube of the organisms; subject it to a low temperature, and while quite cold fill it with liquefied gelatin, which is caused to solidify rapidly. In this method the colonies develop along the sides of the tubes, and can more easily be studied than where they are mixed through the gelatin, as in the method of Liborius.

By some workers the oxygen is removed by actual pumping with the air-pump.

Many other methods exist for this special purpose, but for the beginner those given will suffice.

From what has been said it may be inferred that the cultivation of anaërobic bacteria is a simple matter and attended with but little difficulty. Such an inference will, however, be quickly dispelled when the beginner attempts this part of his work for the first time, and particularly when his efforts are directed toward the isolation of these forms from other organisms with which they are associated. The presence of spore-forming, *facultative* anaërobes in mixed cultures is always to be suspected, and it is this group that renders the task so difficult. At best the work requires undivided attention and no small degree of skill in bacteriological technique.

INDOL PRODUCTION.—The production of products other than those which give rise to alterations in the reaction of the media, and whose presence may be detected by chemical reactions, is now a recognized step in the identification of different species of bacteria. Among these chemical products there is one which is produced by a number of organisms, and whose presence may easily be detected by its characteristic behavior when treated with certain substances. I refer to the body *nitroso-indol*, the reactions of which were described by Beyer in 1869, and the presence of which as a product of growth of certain bacteria has since furnished a topic for considerable discussion.

Indol, the name by which this body is now generally known, when acted upon by reducing agents, is seen to become of a more or less conspicuous rose color. This body was recognized as one of the products of growth of the spirillum of Asiatic cholera first by Poel, and a short time subsequently by Bujwid and by Dunham, and for a time was thought to be peculiarly character-

istic of the growth of this organism. It has since been found that there exist other bacteria which also possess the property of producing indol in the course of their development.

The method employed for its detection is as follows: Cultivate the organism for twenty-four to forty-eight hours at a temperature of 37° C., in the simple peptone solution known as "Dunham's solution" (see formula for this medium). This solution is preferred because its pale color does not mask the rose color of the reaction when the amount of indol present is very small.

Four tubes should always be inoculated and kept under exactly the same conditions for the same length of time.

At the end of twenty-four or forty-eight hours the test may be made. Proceed as follows: To a tube containing 7 c.c. of the peptone solution, but which has *not* been inoculated, add 10 drops of concentrated sulphuric acid. To another similar tube add 1 c.c. of a 0.01 per cent. solution of sodium nitrite, and afterward 10 drops of concentrated sulphuric acid. Observe the tubes for five to ten minutes. No alteration in their color appears, or at least there will be no production of a rose color. They contain no indol.

Treat in the same way, with the acid alone, two of the tubes which *have been inoculated*. If no rose color appears after five or ten minutes, add 1 c.c. of the sodium nitrite solution. If now no rose color is produced, the indol reaction may be considered as negative. No indol is present.

If indol is present, and the rose color appears after the addition of the acid alone, it is plain that not only indol has been formed, but likewise a reducing body.

This is found, by proper means, to be salts of nitrous acid. The sulphuric acid liberates this acid from its salts and permits of its reducing action being brought into play.

If the rose color appears only after the addition of both the acid and the nitrite solution, then indol has been formed during the growth of the organisms, but no nitrites.

Control the results obtained by treating the two remaining cultures in the same way.

The test is sometimes made by allowing concentrated acid to flow down the sides and collect at the bottom of the tube; the reaction is then seen as a rose-colored zone overlying the line of contact of the acid and culture medium. This method is open to the objection that if indol is present in only a very limited amount, the rose color produced by it is apt to be masked by a brown color that results from the charring action of the concentrated acid on the other organic matters in the culture medium, so that its presence may in this way escape detection. In view of this, Petri recommends the use of dilute sulphuric acid. He states that when indol is present the characteristic rose color appears a little more slowly with the dilute acid, but is more permanent, and there is never any danger of its presence being masked by the occurrence of other color reactions.

POINTS TO BE OBSERVED IN DESCRIBING AN ORGANISM.

The following is an outline of points to be considered in describing a new organism or in identifying an organism with one already described :

1. Its source—as air, water, or soil. If found in the

animal body, is it normally present or only in pathological conditions?

2. Its form, size, mode of development, occurrence of involution forms or other variations in morphology. Grouping, as in pairs, chains, clumps, zoöglœa; presence of capsule; development and germination of spores; arrangement of flagella.

3. Staining peculiarities—especially its reactions with Gram's (or Weigert's fibrin) stain, and peculiar or irregular modes of staining.

4. Motility—to be determined on very fresh cultures and on cultures in different media.

5. Its relation to oxygen—is it aërobic, anaërobic, or facultative? Does it develop in other gases, as carbonic acid, hydrogen, etc.?

6. Both the macroscopic and microscopic appearance of its colonies on nutrient gelatin and on nutrient agar-agar.

7. The appearance of its growth in stab and slant cultures on gelatin, agar-agar, blood-serum, and on potato.

8. The character of its growth in fluid media, as in bouillon, milk, litmus milk, rosolic-acid-peptone solution, and in bouillon containing glucose.

9. Does it grow best in acid, alkaline, or neutral media?

10. Is the normal reaction of the medium altered by its growth? Is its growth accompanied by the production of indol; is the indol associated with the coincident production of nitrites?

11. Is its growth accompanied by the production of gas, as evidenced by the appearance of gas-bubbles in the media—both in media containing fermentable sugars

and those from which these bodies are absent? When cultivated in sugar-bouillon in the fermentation tube, what proportion of gas is evolved under known conditions? How much of this gas is carbonic acid and how much is explosive?

12. At what temperature does it thrive best, and the lowest and highest temperatures at which it will develop? What is its thermal death-point, both by steam and dry-air methods of determining this point?

13. What is its behavior when exposed to chemical disinfectants and antiseptics? does it withstand drying and other injurious influences, both in the vegetative and spore stages? The germicidal value of the blood-serum of different animals may also be tried upon it.

14. Its pathogenic powers—modes of inoculation by which these are demonstrated; quantity of material used in inoculation; duration of the disease and its symptoms; lesions produced, and distribution of the bacteria in the inoculated animal; which animals are susceptible and which immune, and the character of its pathogenic activities? Variations in virulence, and the probable cause to which they are due. Can they be produced artificially and at will?

15. The detection of specific, toxic, and immunizing products of growth.



CHAPTER XII.

Inoculation of animals—Subcutaneous inoculation ; intra-venous injection—Inoculation into the great serous cavities ; and into the anterior chamber of the eye—Observation of animals after inoculation.

AFTER subjecting an organism to the methods of study that we have thus far reviewed, there remains to be tested its action upon animals—*i. e.*, to determine if it possesses the property of producing disease or not, and, if so, what are the pathological results of its growth in the tissues of these animals, and in what way must it gain entrance to the tissues in order to produce these results.

The means of deciding these points is by inoculation, which is practised in different ways according to circumstances. Most commonly a bit of the culture to be tested is simply introduced beneath the skin of the animal, but in other cases it may be necessary to introduce it directly into the vascular circulation or into one or the other of the great serous cavities ; or, for still other purposes of observation, into the anterior chamber of the eye, upon the iris.

SUBCUTANEOUS INOCULATION OF ANIMALS.—The animals usually employed in the laboratory for purposes of inoculation are white mice, gray house-mice, guinea-pigs, rabbits, and pigeons.

For simple subcutaneous inoculation the steps in the process are practically the same in all cases. The hair or feathers are to be carefully removed. If the skin

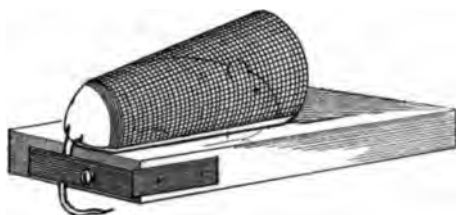
is very dirty it may be scrubbed with soap and water. Disinfection of the skin is impossible, so that it need not be attempted. If the inoculation is to be by means of a hypodermatic syringe, then a fold of the skin may be lifted up and the needle inserted in the way common to this procedure. If a solid culture is to be inoculated, a fold of the skin may be taken up with the forceps and a pocket cut into it with scissors which have previously been sterilized. This pocket must be cut large enough to admit the end of the needle without its touching the sides of the opening as it is inserted. Beneath the skin will be found the superficial and deep connective-tissue fasciæ. These must be taken up with sterilized forceps, and with sterilized scissors incised in a way corresponding to the opening in the skin. The pocket is then to be held open with the forceps and the substance to be inserted is introduced as far back under the skin and fasciæ as possible, care being taken not to touch the edges of the wound if it can be avoided. The wound may be then simply pulled together and allowed to remain. No stitching or efforts at closing it are necessary.

During manipulation the animal must be held still. For this purpose special forms of holders have been devised, but if an assistant is to be obtained for the operation, the simple subcutaneous inoculation may be made without the aid of a mechanical holder.

For mice, however, a holder is of much convenience. This piece of apparatus consists of a bit of board of about 7 x 10 cm. and 2 cm. thick, upon which is tacked a hollow, tapering roll of wire gauze, a truncated cone of about 6 cm. long and of about 1.5 cm. in diameter at one end and 2 cm. at its other end.

This is tacked upon the board in such a position that its long axis runs in the long axis of the board, being equidistant from its two sides. Its small end is placed at the edge of the board. The mouse is taken up by the tail by means of a pair of tongs and allowed to crawl into the smaller end of this wire cone. When so far in that only the root of the tail projects, the animal is then fixed in this position by a clamp and thumb-screw, with which the apparatus (Fig. 36) is provided. The animal usually remains perfectly quiet and may be handled without difficulty.

FIG. 36.



Mouse-holder, with mouse in proper position.

The hair from over the root of the tail is to be carefully cut away with the scissors, and a pocket cut through the skin at this point. The inoculation is then made into the loose tissues under the skin over this part of the back in the way that has just been described. It is best always to insert the needle some distance along the spinal column, and thus deposit the material as far from the surface-wound as possible.

As the subcutaneous operation is very simple and takes only a few moments, guinea-pigs, rabbits, and pigeons are best held by an assistant. The front legs in the one hand and the hind legs in the other, with

the animal stretched upon its back on a table, is the usual position for the operation when practised upon guinea-pigs and rabbits. The point at which the inoculations are commonly made is in the abdominal walls either to the right or left of the median line and about 3 cm. distant. When pigeons are used they are held with the legs, tail, and ends of the wings in the one hand, and the head and anterior portion of the body in the other, leaving the area occupied by the pectoral muscles, over which the inoculation is to be made, free for manipulation. The hair should be closely cut with the scissors in the case of the guinea-pigs and rabbits, and the feathers pulled out in the case of the pigeon.

INJECTION INTO THE CIRCULATION.—It is not infrequently desirable to inject the material under consideration directly into the circulation of an animal. If the rabbit is to be employed for the purpose, the operation is usually done upon one of the veins in the ear.

To those who have had no practice in this procedure it offers a great many difficulties; but if the directions which will be given are strictly observed, the greatest of these obstacles to the successful performance of the operation may be overcome.

When viewing the circulation in the ear of the rabbit by transmitted light, three conspicuous branches of the main vessel (*vena auricularis posterior*) will be seen. One runs about centrally in the long axis of the ear, one runs along its anterior margin, and one along its posterior margin. The central branch (the *ramus anterior* of the *vena auricularis posterior*) is the largest and most conspicuous vessel of the ear, and is, therefore, selected by the inexperienced as the branch into which it would appear easiest to insert a hypodermatic needle.

This, however, is fallacious. This vessel lies very loosely imbedded in connective tissue, and in efforts to introduce a needle into it, rolls about to such an extent that only after a great deal of difficulty does the experiment succeed. On the other hand the posterior branch (*ramus lateralis posterior* of the *vena auricularis posterior*) is a very fine, delicate vessel which runs along the posterior margin of the ear, and which is so firmly fixed in the dense tissues which surround it that it is prevented from rolling about under the point of the needle. The further away from the mouth of the vessel—that is, the nearer we approach its capillary extremity—the more favorable become the conditions for the success of the operation.

Select, then, the very delicate vessel lying quite close to the posterior margin of the ear, and make the injection as near to the apex of the ear as possible. The injection is always to be made from the dorsal surface of the ear.

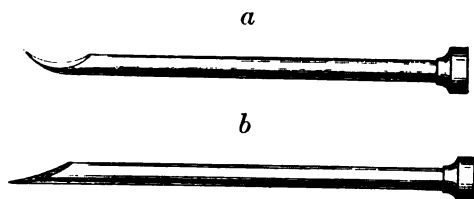
Of no less importance than the selection of the proper vessel, is the shape of the point of the needle employed.

The hypodermatic needles as they come from the makers are not suited at all for this operation because of the way in which their points are ground. If one examines carefully the point of a new hypodermatic needle it will be seen that the long point, instead of presenting a *flat*, slanting surface, when viewed from the side, is more or less of a *curved* surface. Now, in efforts to introduce such a needle into a vessel of very small calibre, it is commonly seen that the extreme point of the needle, instead of remaining in the vessel, as it would do were it straight, very commonly projects into the opposite wall, and as the needle is inserted

further and further into the tissues, it is usually pushed through the vessels into the loose tissues beyond, and the material to be injected is deposited into these tissues instead of into the circulation. If, on the contrary, the slanting point of the needle is ground down until its surface is perfectly flat, and when viewed from the side and no more curvature exists, then when once inserted into a vessel it usually remains there, and there is no tendency to penetrate through the opposite wall. We never use a new hypodermatic needle until its point is carefully ground down to a perfectly flat, slanting surface and no more curvature exists.

These differences may perhaps come out clearer if represented diagrammatically.

FIG. 37.



Hypodermatic needles. *a*, Improper point; *b*, proper shape of point.

In Fig. 37, *a*, the needle has the point usually seen when new.

In Fig. 37, *b*, the point has been ground down to the shape best suited for this operation.

The needles need not be returned to the maker. One can grind them to the shape desired in a few minutes upon an oilstone.

The size of the needle is that commonly employed for subcutaneous injections.

When the operation is to be performed, an assistant

holds the animal gently but firmly in the crouching position upon a table. If the animal does not remain quiet it is best to wrap it in a towel so that nothing but its head protrudes, though in the most cases we have not found this necessary, and particularly if the animal has not been excited prior to the beginning of the operation.

The animal should be placed so that the ear upon which the operation is to be performed comes between the operator and the source of light. This renders visible by transmitted light not only the coarser vessels of the ear, but also their finer branches. The point at which the injection is to be made is to be shaved clean of hair, by means of a razor and soap.

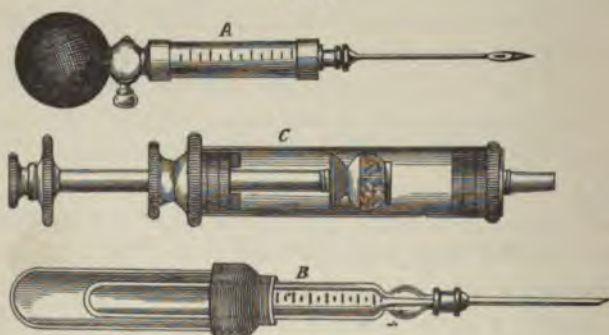
The filled hypodermatic syringe is taken in one hand and with the other hand the ear is held firmly. The point of the needle is then inserted through the skin and into the finest part of the *ramus posterior*, the part nearest the apex of the ear, where the course of the vessel is nearly straight. When the point of the needle is in this vessel it gives to the hand a sensation quite different from that felt when it is in the midst of connective tissue. As soon as one thinks the point of the needle is in the vessel, a drop or two of the fluid may be injected from the syringe, and if his suspicions are correct the circulation in the small ramifications and their anastomoses will quickly alter in appearance. Instead of their containing blood, the colorless fluid which is being injected will now be seen to circulate. This must be carefully observed, for sometimes when the needle-point is not actually in the vessel, but is in the lymph-spaces surrounding it, an appearance somewhat similar is to be seen. It may always be differentiated,

however, by continuing the injection, when the circulation of clear fluid through the vessels will not only fail to take the place of the circulating blood but there will at the same time appear a localized swelling under the skin about the point of the needle. The needle must then be withdrawn and inserted into the vessel at a point a little nearer to its proximal end.

Care must be taken that no air is injected.

The hypodermatic syringe and needle must, previous to operation, have been carefully sterilized in the steam sterilizer. The animal must be kept under close observation for about an hour after injection.

FIG. 38.



Forms of hypodermatic syringe.

A, Koch's syringe; *B*, syringe of Strohschein; *C*, Overlack's form.

The form of syringe best suited for this operation is of the ordinary design, but one that permits of thorough sterilization by steam. It should be made of glass and metal, with asbestos packings. The syringes commonly employed are those shown in Fig. 38—*A*, Koch's; *B*, Strohschein's; *C*, Overlack's.



INOCULATION INTO THE SEROUS CAVITIES. 193

The operation is one that cannot be learned from verbal description. It can only be successfully performed after actual practice.

If the precautions which have been mentioned are observed, but little difficulty in performing the operation will be experienced.

Its convenience and simplicity over other methods for the introduction of substances into the circulation commend it as an operation with which to make oneself familiar. The animals sustain practically no wound, they experience no pain—at least they give no evidence of pain—and no anaesthesia is required.

INOCULATION INTO THE GREAT SEROUS CAVITIES.

Inoculation into the *peritoneum* presents no difficulties if fluids are to be introduced. In this case one makes, with a pair of hot scissors, a small nick through the skin down to the underlying fasciæ, and, taking up a fold of the abdominal wall between the fingers, plunges the hypodermatic needle through the opening just made directly into the peritoneal cavity. There is no fear of penetrating the intestines or other internal viscera if the puncture is made along the median line at about midway between the end of the sternum and the symphysis pubis. Though this may seem a rude method, it is, nevertheless, the rarest of accidents to find that the intestines have been penetrated. The object of the primary incision is to lessen the chances of contaminating the inoculation by bacteria located in the skin, some of which would adhere to the needle if it were plunged directly through the skin, and might complicate the results.

If solid substances, bits of tissue, etc., are to be introduced into the peritoneum it becomes necessary to conduct the operation upon the lines of a laparotomy. The hair should be shaved from a small area over the median line, after which the skin is to be thoroughly washed. A short longitudinal incision (about 2 cm. long) is then to be made in the median line through the skin, and down to the fasciæ. Two subcutaneous sutures, as employed by Halsted, are then to be introduced transverse to the line of incision at about 1 cm. apart, and

FIG. 39.



their ends left loose. This particular sort of suture does not pass through the skin, but the needle is introduced into the subcutaneous tissues along the edge of the incision. In this case they are to pass into the abdominal cavity and out again, entering at one side of the line of incision and leaving at the other as indicated by the solid and dotted lines in Fig. 39. (This figure indicates the primary opening through the skin. By the longitudinal dotted line is seen the opening to be made into

the abdomen ; by the transverse dotted lines, with their loose ends, the sutures as placed in position *before the abdomen is opened* ; it will be seen that these sutures in all cases pass through the subcutaneous tissues *only* and do not penetrate the skin proper.) The opening through the remaining layers may now be completed ; the bit of tissue deposited in the peritoneal cavity, under precautions that will exclude all else ; the edges of the wound drawn evenly and gently together by tying the sutures, and the lines of incision dressed with collodion. It should be needless to say that this operation must be conducted under the strictest precautions to avoid complications. All instruments, sutures, ligatures, etc., must be carefully sterilized either in the steam sterilizer for twenty minutes, or by boiling in 2 per cent. soda solution for ten minutes ; the hands of the operator, though they should not touch the wound, should be carefully cleansed and the material to be introduced into the abdomen should be handled with only sterilized instruments.

Inoculation into the *pleural* cavity is much less frequently called for—in fact, it is not a routine method employed in this work. It is not easy to enter the pleural cavity with a hypodermatic needle without injuring the lung, and it is rare that conditions call for the introduction of solid particles in this locality.

Inoculation into the anterior chamber of the eye is performed by making a puncture through the cornea just in front of its junction with the sclerotic, the knife being passed into the anterior chamber in a plane parallel to the plane of the iris. By the aid of a fine pair of forceps the bit of tissue is passed through the opening thus made and is deposited upon the iris, where it is

allowed to remain, and where its pathogenic properties upon the iris can be conveniently studied. It is a mode of inoculation of very limited application, and is therefore but rarely practised. It was employed by Cohnheim in demonstrating the infectious nature of tuberculous tissues, tuberculosis of the iris being the constant result of the introduction of tuberculous tissue into the anterior chamber of the eye of rabbits.

OBSERVATION OF ANIMALS AFTER INOCULATION.

After either of these methods of inoculation, particularly when unknown species of bacteria are being tested, the animal is to be kept under constant observation and all that is unusual in its conduct noted—as, for instance, elevation of temperature; loss of weight; peculiar position in its cage; loss of appetite; roughening of the hair; excessive secretions, either from the air-passages, conjunctiva, or kidneys; looseness of or hemorrhage from the bowels; tumefaction or reaction at site of inoculation, etc. If death ensues in from two to four days it may reasonably be expected that at autopsy evidence of either acute septic or toxic processes will be found. It sometimes occurs, however, that inoculation results in the production of chronic conditions, and the animal must be kept under observation, often for weeks. In these cases it is important to note the progressive changes that are in progress by their effect upon the physical conditions of the animal, viz., upon the nutritive processes as evidenced by fluctuation in weight and upon the body temperature. For this purpose the animal is to be weighed daily, always at about the same hour and always about midway between the hours of

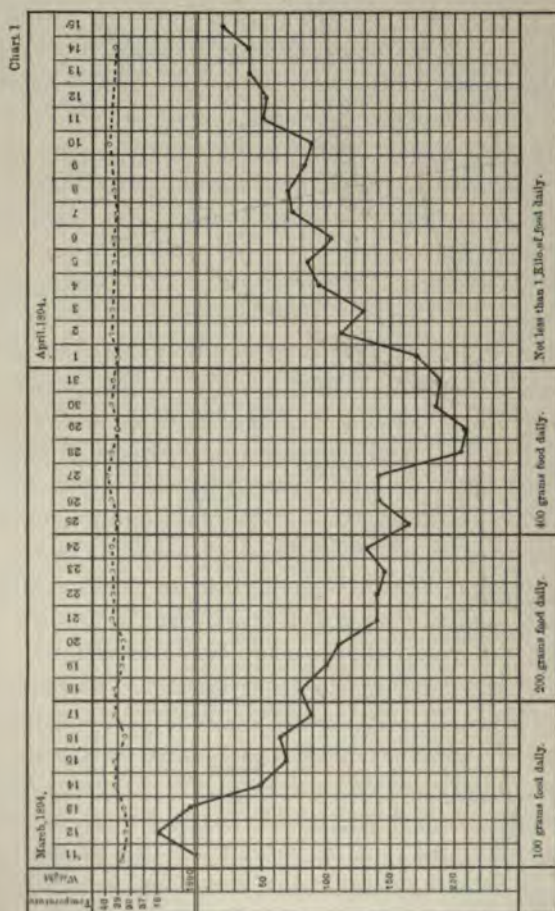
feeding; at the same time its temperature as indicated by a thermometer placed in the rectum is to be recorded.¹ By the comparison of these daily observations with one another, one is aided in observing the course the infection is taking.

Too much stress must not, however, be laid upon moderate and sudden daily fluctuations in either temperature or weight, as it is a common observation that presumably normal animals when confined in cages and fed regularly often present very striking temporary gains and losses in weight, often amounting to 50 or 100 grammes in twenty-four hours, even in animals whose total weight may not exceed 500 or 600 grammes; similarly they are seen to experience unexplainable rises and falls of temperature, often as much as a degree from one day to another. Such fluctuations have apparently no bearing upon the general condition of the animal, but are probably due to transient causes, such as overfeeding or scarcity of food, improper feeding, lack of exercise, excitement, fright, etc.

The accompanying charts (Figs. 40, 41, 42, 43) will serve to illustrate some of these points. The animals, two rabbits and two guinea-pigs, were taken at random from among the stock animals and placed each in a clean cage, the kind used for animals under experiment, and kept under as good general conditions as possible. For the first week the rabbits received each 100 grammes of green food (cabbage and turnips) daily, and the guinea-pigs 30 grammes each of the same food. During the second week this daily amount of food was doubled;

¹ The thermometer must be inserted into the rectum beyond the grasp of the sphincter, otherwise pressure upon its bulb by contraction of this muscle may give results higher than the actual body temperature.

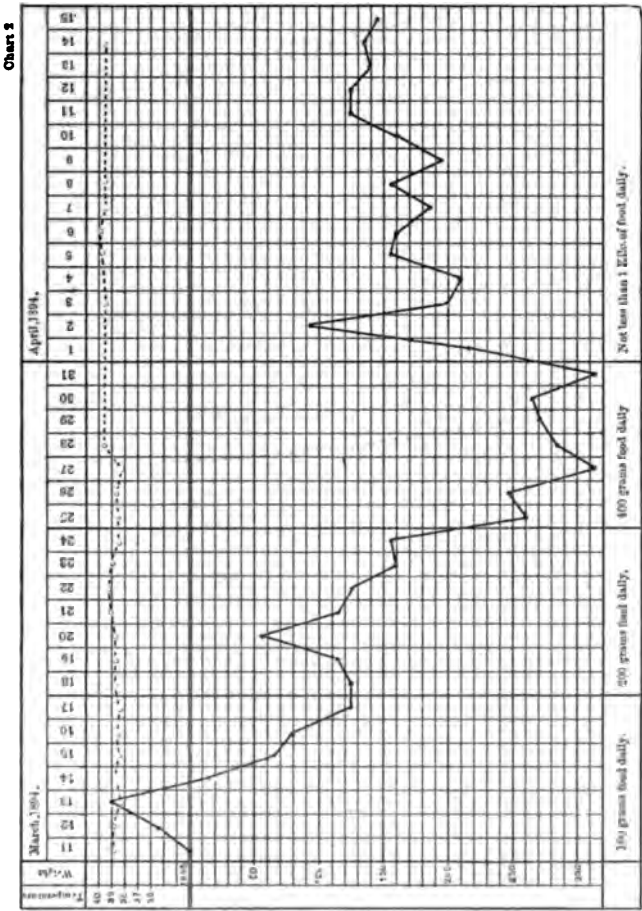
FIG. 40.



Showing diurnal fluctuations of temperature and weight of a rabbit receiving varying amounts of food. Animal otherwise under normal conditions.

during the third week it was quadrupled, and for the fourth and fifth weeks they each received an excess of

FIG. 41.

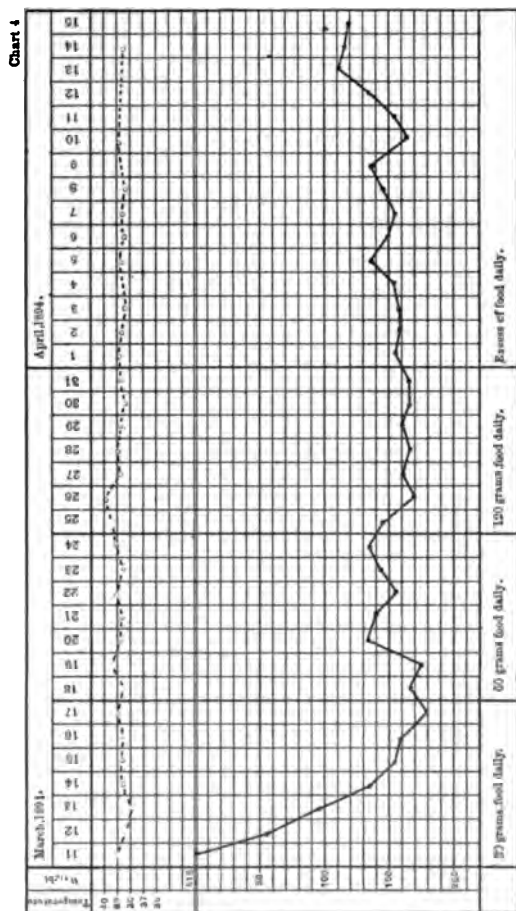


Showing diurnal fluctuations of temperature and weight of a rabbit receiving varying amounts of food. Animal otherwise under normal conditions.

food daily, consisting of green vegetables and grain (oats and corn). By reference to the charts sudden



FIG. 43.



Showing diurnal fluctuations of temperature and weight of a guinea-pig receiving varying amounts of food. Animal otherwise under normal conditions.

of food. With the rabbits there is a gradual loss of weight with the smaller amounts of food, which losses

are not totally recovered as the food is increased. With the guinea-pigs there is likewise at first a loss, but after a short time the weight remains tolerably constant, and is not as conspicuously affected by the increase in food as one might expect. From the recorded temperatures one sees the peculiar fluctuations mentioned. To just what they are due it is impossible to say. It is manifest that the normal temperature of these animals, if we can speak of a normal temperature for animals presenting such fluctuations, is about a degree or more, Centigrade, higher than that of human beings. The animals from which these charts were made were not inoculated, nor were they subjected to any operative procedures whatever, the only deviations from normal conditions being the variations in the daily amount of food given.

In certain instances, however, there will be noticed a constant tendency to diminution in weight, notwithstanding the daily fluctuations, and after a time a condition of extreme emaciation may be reached, the animal often being reduced to from 50 to 60 per cent. of its original weight. In other cases, after inoculations to which the animal is not susceptible, rabbits in particular, if properly fed, will frequently gain steadily in weight. The condition of progressive emaciation just mentioned is conspicuously seen after intra-venous inoculation of rabbits with cultures of the *bacillus typhi abdominalis* and of the *bacterium coli commune* referred to in the chapter on the latter organism, and if looked for will doubtless be seen to follow inoculation with other organisms capable of producing chronic forms of infection, but which are frequently considered non-pathogenic because of their inability to induce acute conditions. Not infrequently in chronic infections there may be hardly any

marked and constant temperature variations until just before death, when there will sometimes be a rise and at other times a fall of temperature.

In the majority of cases, however, one must be very cautious as to the amount of stress laid upon changes in weight and temperature, for unless they are progressive or continuous in one or another direction they may have little or no significance in indicating the existence or absence of disease.



CHAPTER XIII.

Post-mortem examination of animals—Bacteriological examination of the tissues—Disposal of tissues and disinfection of instruments after the examination.

DURING the bacteriological examination of the tissues of dead animals, certain rigid precautions must be observed in order to avoid error.

The autopsy should be made as soon as possible after death. If delay cannot be avoided, the animal should be kept on ice until the examination can be made, otherwise decomposition sets in, and the saprophytic bacteria now present may interfere with the accuracy of results.

When the autopsy is to be made, the animal is first inspected externally, and all visible lesions noted. It is then to be fixed upon its back upon a board with nails or tacks. The four legs and the end of the nose, through which the tacks are driven, are to be moderately extended. Plates are now to be made from the site of inoculation, if this is subcutaneous. The surfaces of the thorax and abdomen are then to be moistened to prevent the fine hairs, dust, etc., from floating about in the air and interfering with the work. An incision is then made through the skin from the chin to the symphysis pubis. This is only a skin incision, and does not reach deeper than the muscles. It is best done by first making a small incision with a scalpel, just large enough to permit of the introduction of one blade of a blunt-pointed scissors. It is then completed with the scissors. The whole of the skin is

now to be carefully dissected away, not only from the abdomen and thorax, but from the axillary, inguinal, and cervical regions, and the fore and hind legs as well. The skin is then pinned back to the board so as to keep it as far from the abdomen and thorax as possible, for it is from the skin that the chances of contamination are greatest.

It now becomes necessary to proceed very carefully. All incisions from this time on are to be made only through surfaces that have been sterilized. The sterilization is best accomplished by the use of a broad-bladed common knife that has been heated in the gas-flame. The blade, made quite hot, is to be held upon the region of the linea alba until the skin at that region begins to burn; it is then held transverse to this line over about the centre of the abdomen, thus making two sterilized tracks through which the abdomen may be opened by a crucial incision. The sterilization thus accomplished is, of course, directed only against organisms that may have fallen upon the surface from without, and it therefore need not extend deep down through the tissues.

In the same way two burned lines may be made from either extremity of the transverse line up to the top of the thorax.

With a hot scissors the central longitudinal incision, extending from the point of the sternum to the genitalia, is to be made without touching the internal viscera. The abdominal wall must therefore be held up during the operation with sterilized forceps or hook.

The cross incision is made in the same way. When this is completed, an incision through the ribs with a pair of heavy, sterilized scissors, is made along the scorched tracks on either side of the thorax.

After this the whole anterior wall of the thorax may easily be lifted up, and by severing the connections with the diaphragm it may be completely removed.

When this is done and the abdominal flaps laid back, the contents of both cavities are to be inspected and their condition noted without disturbing them.

After this, the first steps to be taken are to prepare plates or Esmarch tubes from the blood, liver, spleen, kidneys, and any exudates that may exist.

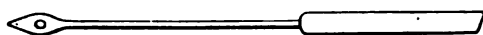
This is best done as follows :

Heat a scalpel quite hot and apply it to a small surface of the organ from which the cultures are to be made. Hold it upon the organ until the surface directly beneath it is visibly scorched. Then remove it, heat it again, and while quite hot insert its point through the capsule of the organ. Into the opening thus made insert a sterilized platinum-wire loop, made of wire a little heavier than that commonly employed. Project this deeply into the tissues of the organ; by twisting it about enough material from the centre of the organ can be obtained for making the cultures.

As the resistance offered by the tissues is sometimes too great to permit of a puncture with the ordinary wire loop, Nuttall (*Centralblatt für Bakteriologie und Parasitenkunde*, 1892, Bd. xi. p. 538) has devised for the purpose a platinum-wire spear which possesses considerable advantage over the loop. It is of the form seen in Fig. 44. It is easily made by beating a piece of heavy platinum wire into a spear-head at one end, and perforating this with a small drill, as seen in the cut. It is attached by the other end to either a metal or glass handle, preferably the former. It can be readily thrust into the densest of the soft tissues, and

by twisting it about after its introduction particles of the tissue sufficient for examination are withdrawn in the eye of the spear-head.

FIG. 44.



Nuttall's platinum spear for use at autopsies.

The cultures from the blood are usually made from one of the cavities of the heart, which is always entered through a surface which has been burned in the way given.

In addition to cultures, cover-slips from the site of inoculation, from each organ and from any exudates that may exist, must be made. These, however, are prepared *after* the materials for the cultures have been obtained.

They need not be examined immediately, but may be placed aside, under cover, on bits of paper upon which the name of the organ from which they were prepared is written.

When the autopsy is complete and the gross appearances have been carefully noted, small portions of each organ are to be preserved in 95 per cent. alcohol for subsequent examination. Throughout the entire autopsy it must be borne in mind that all cultures, cover-slips, and tissues must be carefully labelled, not only with the name of the organ from which they originate, but with the date, designation of the animal, etc., so that an account of their condition after closer study may be subsequently inserted in the protocol.

The cover-slips are now to be stained, mounted, and examined microscopically, and the results carefully noted.

The same may be said for the subsequent study of the

cultures and the hardened tissues which are to be stained and subjected to microscopic examination. The results of microscopic study of the cover-slip preparations and those obtained by cultures should in most cases correspond, though it not rarely occurs that bacteria are present in such small numbers in the tissues that their presence may be overlooked microscopically, and still they may appear in the cultures.

If the autopsy has been performed in the proper way, under the precautions given, and sufficiently soon after death, the results of the bacteriological examination should be either negative or the organisms which appear should be in pure cultures.

This is particularly the case with the cultures made from the internal viscera.

Both the cover-slips and cultures made from the point of inoculation are apt to contain a variety of organisms.

If the organism obtained in pure culture from the internal viscera, or those predominating at the point of inoculation of the animal, have caused its death, then subsequent inoculation of pure cultures of this organism into the tissues of a second animal should produce similar results.

When the autopsy is quite finished, the remainder of the animal should be *burned*; all instruments subjected to either sterilization by steam or boiling for fifteen minutes in a 1 to 2 per cent. soda solution, and the board upon which the animal was tacked, as well as the tacks, towels, dishes, and all other implements used at the autopsy, are to be sterilized by steam. All cultures, cover-slips, and, indeed, all articles likely to have infectious material upon them, must be thoroughly sterilized as soon as they are of no further service.

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APPLICATION OF THE METHODS OF BACTERIOLOGY.

CHAPTER XIV.

To obtain material with which to begin work.

EXPOSE to the air of an inhabited room a slice of freshly steamed potato or a bit of slightly moistened bread upon a plate for about one hour. Then cover it with an ordinary water-glass and place it in a warm spot (temperature not to exceed that of the human body— 37.5° C.), and allow it to remain unmolested. At the end of twenty-four to thirty-six hours there will be seen upon the cut surface of the bread or potato small, round, oval, or irregularly round patches which present various appearances.

These differences in macroscopic appearance are due, in some cases, to the presence or absence of color; in others to a higher or lower degree of moisture; in some instances a patch will be glistening and smooth while its neighbor may be dull and rough or wrinkled; here will appear an island regularly round in outline and there an area covered by an irregular ragged deposit. All of these gross appearances are of value in aiding us to distinguish between these colonies—for colonies they are—and under the same conditions the organisms com-

posing each of them will always produce growths of exactly the same appearance. It was just such an experiment as this, accidentally performed, that suggested to Koch a means of separating and isolating from mixtures of bacteria the component individuals in pure cultures, and it was from this observation that the methods of cultivation on solid media were evolved.

If, without molesting our experiment, we continue the observation from day to day, we shall notice changes in the colonies due to the growth and multiplication of the individuals composing them. In some cases the colonies will always retain their sharply cut, round, or oval outline, and will increase but little in size beyond that reached after forty-eight to seventy-two hours, whereas others will spread rapidly, and will very quickly overrun the surface upon which they are growing, and indeed, grow over the smaller, less rapidly developing colonies. In a number of instances, if the observation be continued long enough, many of these rapidly growing colonies will, after a time, lose their lustrous and smooth or regular surface and will show, at first here and there, elevations which will continue to appear until the whole surface takes on a wrinkled appearance. Again bubbles may be seen scattered through the colonies. These are due to the escape of gas resulting from fermentation which the organisms bring about in the medium upon which they are growing. Sometimes peculiar odors resulting from the same cause will be noticed.

Note carefully all these changes and appearances, as they must be employed subsequently in identifying the individual organisms from which each colony on the medium has developed.

If now we examine these points upon our bread or potato with a hand-lens of low magnifying power we will be enabled to detect differences not noticeable to the naked eye. In some cases we shall still see nothing more than a smooth non-characteristic surface; while in others, minute, sometimes regularly arranged, corrugations may be observed. In one colony they may appear as tolerably regular radii, radiating from a central spot; and again they may appear as concentric rings; and if by the methods which have been described we obtain from these colonies their individual components in pure culture, we shall see that this characteristic arrangement in folds, radii, or concentric rings, or the production of color, is under normal conditions constant.

So much for the simplest naked-eye experiment that can be made in bacteriology, and which serves to furnish the beginner with material upon which to begin his studies. It is not necessary at this time for him to burden his mind with names for these organisms; it is sufficient for him to recognize that they are mostly of different species and that they possess characteristics which will enable him to differentiate the one from the other.

In order now for him to proceed it is necessary that he should have familiarized himself with the methods by which his media are prepared and the means employed in sterilizing them and retaining them sterile—*i. e.*, of preventing the access of foreign germs from without—otherwise his efforts to obtain and retain his organisms as pure cultures will be in vain.

EXPOSURE AND CONTACT.—Make a number of plates from bits of silk used for sutures, after treating them as follows:

Place some of these pieces (about 5 centimetres long) into a sterilized test-tube, and sterilize them by steam for one hour. At the end of the sterilization remove one piece with sterilized forceps and allow it to brush against your clothing, then make a plate from it; draw another piece across the table and then plate it. Suspend three or four pieces upon a sterilized wire hook and let them hang for thirty minutes free in the air, being sure that they touch nothing but the hook; then plate them separately.

Note the results.

In what way do these experiments differ and how can the differences be explained?

Expose to the air six Petri dishes into which either sterilized gelatin or agar-agar has been poured and allowed to solidify; allow them to remain exposed for five, ten, fifteen, twenty, twenty-five, and thirty minutes, in a room where no one is at work. Treat a second set in the same way in a room where several persons are moving about. Be careful that nothing touches them, and that they are exposed only to the air. Each dish must be carefully labelled with the time of its exposure.

Do they present different results? What is the reason for this difference?

Which predominate, colonies resulting from the growth of bacteria, or those from common moulds?

How do you account for this condition?

CHAPTER XV.

Various experiments in sterilization by steam and by hot air.

PLACE in one of the openings in the cover of the steam sterilizer an accurate thermometer ; when the steam has been streaming for a minute or two the thermometer will register 100° C.; wrap in a bundle of towels or rags or pack tightly in cotton a maximum thermometer ; let this thermometer be in the centre of a bundle large enough to quite fill the chamber of the sterilizer. At the end of a few minutes' exposure to the streaming steam remove it ; it will be found to indicate a temperature of 100° C.

Closer study of the penetration of steam has taught us, however, that the temperature which is found at the centre of such a mass may sometimes be that of the air in the meshes of the material, and not that of steam, and for this reason the sterilization at that point may not be complete, because hot air at 100° C. has not the sterilizing properties that steam at the same temperature possesses. It is necessary, therefore, that this air should be expelled from the meshes of the material and its place taken by the steam before sterilization is complete. This is insured by allowing the steam to stream through the substances a few minutes before beginning to calculate the time of exposure. There is as yet no absolutely sure means of saying that the temperature at the centre of the mass is that of hot air or of steam, so that the exact length of

time that is required for the expulsion of the air from the meshes of the material cannot be given.

Determine if the maximum thermometer indicates a temperature of 100° C. at the centre of a moist bundle in the same way as when a dry bundle was employed.

To about 50 c.c. of bouillon add about one gramme of chopped hay, and allow it to stand in a warm place for twenty-four hours. At the end of this time it will be found to contain a great variety of organisms. Continue the observation, and a pellicle will be seen to form on the surface of the fluid. This pellicle will be made up of rods which grow as long threads in parallel strands. In many of these rods glistening spores will be seen. After thoroughly shaking, filter the mass through a fine cloth to remove coarser particles.

Pour into each of several test-tubes about 10 c.c. of the filtrate. Allow one tube to remain unmolested in a warm place. Place another in the steam sterilizer for five minutes; a third for ten minutes; a fourth for one-half hour; a fifth for one hour.

At the end of each of these exposures inoculate a tube of sterilized bouillon from each tube. Likewise make a set of plates or Esmarch tubes upon both gelatin and agar-agar from each tube, and note the results. At the same time prepare a set of plates or Esmarch tubes on agar-agar and on gelatin from the tube which has not been exposed to the action of the steam.

The plates or tubes from the unmolested tube will present colonies of a variety of organisms; separate and study these.

Those from the tube which has been sterilized for five minutes will present colonies in moderate numbers, but,

as a rule, they will represent but a single organism. Study this organism in pure cultures.

The same may be predicted for the tube which has been heated for ten minutes, though the colonies will be fewer in number.

The thirty-minute tube may or may not give one or two colonies of the same organism.

The tube which has been heated for one hour is usually sterile.

The bouillon tubes from the first and second tubes which were heated will usually show the presence of only one organism—the bacillus which gave rise to the pellicle-formation in our original mixture. This organism is the *bacillus subtilis*, and will serve as an object upon which to study the difference in resistance toward steam between the vegetative and spore stages of the same organism.

Inoculate about 100 c.c. of sterilized bouillon with a very small quantity of a pure culture of this organism, and allow it to stand in a warm place for about six hours. Now subject this culture to the action of steam for five minutes; it will be seen that sterilization, as a rule, is complete.

Treat in the same way a second flask of bouillon, inoculated in the same way with the same organism, but after having stood in a warm place for from forty-eight to seventy-two hours, that is, until the spores have formed, and it will be found that sterilization is not complete—the spores of this organism have resisted the action of steam for five minutes.

To determine if sterilization is complete always resort to the culture methods, as the macroscopic and microscopic methods are deceptive; cloudiness of the media

laid upon the bottom of the sterilizer, but should be suspended from a glass rod, which may be placed inside the oven, extending across its top from one side to the other.

Place several of the infected threads in the centre of a bundle of rags. Subject this to a temperature necessary to sterilize the threads by the dry method. Treat another similar bundle to sterilization by steam. In what way do the two processes differ?



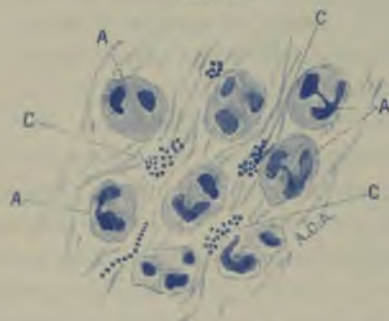
CHAPTER XVI.

Suppuration—The *staphylococcus pyogenes aureus*—*Staphylococcus pyogenes albus* and *citreus*—*Streptococcus pyogenes*—*Bacillus pyocyaneus*—General remarks.

PREPARE from the pus of an acute abscess or boil, that has been opened under antiseptic precautions, a set of plates of agar-agar. Care must be taken that none of the antiseptic fluid gains access to the culture tubes, otherwise its antiseptic effect may be seen and the development of the organisms interfered with. It is best, therefore, to take up a drop of the pus upon the platinum-wire loop after it has been flowing for a few seconds; even then it must be taken from the mouth of the wound and before it has run over the surface of the skin. At the same time prepare two or three coverslips from the pus.

Microscopic examination of these slips will reveal the presence of a large number of pus-cells, both multi-nucleated and with horseshoe-shaped nuclei, some threads of disintegrated and necrotic connective tissue, and, lying here and there throughout the preparation, small round bodies which will sometimes appear singly, sometimes in pairs, and frequently will be seen grouped together somewhat like clusters of grapes. (See Fig. 45.) They stain readily and are commonly located in the material between the pus-cells; very rarely they may be seen in the protoplasmic body of the cell. (Compare the preparation with a similar one made from the pus of gonorrhœa—see Fig. 46. In what

FIG. 45.

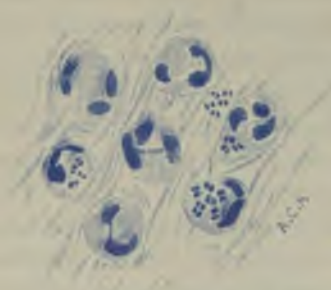


Preparation from pus, showing pus-cells, A, and staphylococci, C.

way do the two preparations differ the one from the other?)

After twenty-four hours in the incubator the plates will be seen to be studded here and there with yellow or

FIG. 46.



Pus of gonorrhoea, showing diplococci in the bodies of the pus-cells.

orange-colored colonies, which are usually round, moist, and glistening in their naked-eye appearances. When located in the depths of the medium they are commonly

seen to be lozenge or whetstone in shape, while often they appear as irregular stars with blunt points, and again as irregularly lobulated dense masses. In structure they are conspicuous for their density. Under the low objective they appear, when on the surface, as coarsely granular, irregularly round patches, with more or less ragged borders and a dark irregular central mass, which has somewhat the appearance of masses of coarser clumps of the same material as that composing the rest of the colony. Microscopically, these colonies are composed of small round cells, irregularly grouped together. They are in every way of the same appearance as those seen upon the original cover-slip preparations.

Prepare from one of these colonies a pure stab culture in gelatin. After thirty-six to forty-eight hours liquefaction of the gelatin along the track of the needle, and most conspicuous at its upper end, will be observed. As growth continues the liquefaction becomes more or less of a stocking-shape, and gradually widens out at its upper end into an irregular funnel. This will continue until the whole of the gelatin in the tube eventually becomes fluid. There can always be noticed at the bottom of the liquefying portion an orange-colored or yellow mass composed of a number of the organisms which have sunk to the bottom of the fluid.

On potato the growth is quite luxuriant, appearing as a brilliant orange-colored layer, somewhat lobulated and a little less moist than when growing upon agar. It does not produce fermentation with gas-production. It belongs to the group of facultative aërobés.

In milk it rapidly brings about coagulation with acid reaction.

It is not motile, and being of the family of micrococci, does not form endogenous spores. It possesses, however, a marked resistance toward detrimental agencies.

In bouillon it causes a diffuse clouding, and after a time presents a yellow sedimentation.

This organism is the commonest of the pathogenic bacteria with which we shall meet. It is the *staphylococcus pyogenes aureus*, and is the organism most frequently concerned in the production of acute, circumscribed, suppurative inflammations. It is almost everywhere present, and is the organism most dreaded by the surgeon.

In studying its effects upon lower animals a number of points are to be remembered. While it is the etiological factor in the production of most of the suppurative processes in man, still it is with no little difficulty that these conditions can be reproduced in the lower animals. Its subcutaneous introduction into their tissues does not always result in abscess-formation, and when it does, there seems to have been some coincident interference with the circulation in these tissues which renders them less able to resist its inroads. When introduced into the great serous cavities of the lower animals it is not always followed by the production of inflammation. If the abdominal cavity of a dog, for example, be carefully opened so as to make as slight a wound as possible, and no injury be done to the intestines, large quantities of bouillon cultures or watery suspensions of this organism may, and repeatedly have been introduced into the peritoneum without the slightest injury to the animal. On the contrary, if some substance which acts as a direct irritant to the intes-

tines—such, for example, as a small bit of potato upon which the organisms are growing—is at the same time introduced, or the intestines be mechanically injured, so that there is a disturbance in their circulation, then the introduction of these organisms is promptly followed by acute and fatal peritonitis. (Halsted.)

On the other hand, the results which follow their introduction into the circulation are practically constant. If one injects into the circulation of the rabbit through one of the veins of the ear, or in any other way, from 0.1 to 0.3 c.c of a bouillon culture or watery suspension of a virulent variety of this organism, a fatal pyæmia always follows in from two and one-half to three days. A few hours before death the animal is frequently seen to have severe convulsions. Now and then excessive secretion of urine is noticed. The animal may appear in moderately good condition until from eight to ten hours before death. At the autopsy a typical picture presents; the voluntary muscles are seen to be marked here and there by yellow spots, which average the size of a flaxseed, and are of about the same shape. They lie usually with their long axis running longitudinally between the muscle fibres. As the abdominal and thoracic cavities are opened the diaphragm is often seen to be studded by them. Frequently the pericardial sac is distended with a clear gelatinous fluid, and almost constantly the yellow points are to be seen in the myocardium. The kidneys are rarely without them; here they appear on the surface scattered about as single yellow points, or again, are seen as conglomerate masses of small yellow points which occupy, as a rule, the area fed by a single vessel. If one makes a section into one of these yellow points it will be seen to extend

deep down through the substance of the kidney as a yellow, wedge-shaped mass, the base of the wedge being at the surface of the organ.

It is very rare that these abscesses—for abscesses these yellow points are, as we shall see when we come to study them more closely—are found either in the liver, spleen, or brain ; their usual location being, as said, in the kidney, myocardium, and voluntary muscles.

These minute abscesses contain a dry, cheesy, necrotic centre, in which the staphylococci are present in large numbers, as may be seen upon cover-slips prepared from them. They may also be obtained in pure culture from these suppurating foci.

Preserve in Müller's fluid and in alcohol duplicate bits of all the tissue in which the abscesses are located.

When these tissues are hard enough to cut, sections should be made through the abscess-points, and the histological changes carefully studied.

MICROSCOPIC STUDY OF COVER-SLIPS AND SECTIONS.
—In cover-slip preparations this organism stains readily with the ordinary dyes.

In tissues, however, it is best to employ some method by means of which contrast stains may be employed and the location and grouping of the organisms in the tissues rendered more conspicuous.

When stained, sections of tissues containing these small abscesses present the following appearances :

To the naked eye will be seen here and there in the section, if the abscesses are very numerous, small, darkly stained areas which range in size from that of a pin-point up to those having a diameter of from 1 to 2 mm. These points, when in the kidney, may be round or oval in outline, or may appear wedge-shaped, with the base

of the wedge toward the surface of the organ. The differences in shape depend frequently upon the direction in which the section has been made through the kidney. In the muscles they are irregularly round or oval.

When quite small they appear to the naked eye as simple, round, or oval, darkly stained points, but when they are more advanced a pale centre can usually be made out.

When magnified, they appear in the earliest stages as minute aggregations of small cells, the nuclei of which stain intensely. Almost always there can be seen about the centre of these cell-accumulations evidences of progressing necrosis. The normal structure of the cells of the tissue will be more or less destroyed; there will be seen a granular condition due to cell-fragmentation; at different points about the centre of this area the tissue will appear cloudy and the tissue-cells will not stain readily. All about and through this spot will be seen the nuclei of pus-cells, many of which are undergoing disintegration. In the smallest of these beginning abscesses the staphylococci are to be seen scattered about the centre of the necrotic tissue, but in a more advanced stage they are commonly seen massed together in very large numbers in the form commonly referred to as *emboli of micrococci*.

The localized necrosis of the tissues which is seen at the centre of the abscess is the direct result of the action of a poison produced by the bacteria, and is the starting-point for all abscess-formations.

When the process is somewhat advanced the different parts of the abscess are more easily detected. They then present in sections somewhat the following conditions:

At the centre can be seen a dense, granular mass, which stains readily with the basic aniline dyes and, when highly magnified, is found to be made up of staphylococci. Sometimes the shape of this mass of staphylococci corresponds to that of the capillary in which the organisms became lodged and developed. Immediately about the embolus of cocci the tissues are seen to be in an advanced stage of necrosis. Their structure is almost completely destroyed, though it is seen to be more advanced in some of the elements of the tissues than in others. As we approach the periphery of this faintly stained necrotic area, it becomes marked here and there with granular bodies, irregular in size and shape, which stain in the same way as do the nuclei of the pus-cells and represent the result of disintegration going on in these cells.

Beyond this we come upon a dense, deeply stained zone, consisting of closely packed pus-cells; of granular detritus resulting from destructive processes acting upon these cells; and of the normal cellular and connective-tissue elements of the part. Here and there through this zone will be seen localized areas of beginning death of the tissues. This zone gradually fades away into the healthy surrounding tissues. It constitutes the so-called "abscess-wall."

Such is the picture presented by the miliary abscess when produced experimentally in the rabbit, and it corresponds throughout with the pathological changes which accompany the formation of larger abscesses in the tissues of human beings.

From these small abscesses in the tissues of the rabbit the staphylococcus pyogenes aureus may again be obtained in pure culture, and will present identically the

same characteristics that were possessed by the culture with which the animal was inoculated.

THE LESS COMMON PYOGENIC ORGANISMS.—The pus of an acute abscess in the human being may sometimes contain other organisms beside the *staphylococcus pyogenes aureus*. The *staphylococcus pyogenes albus* and *citreus* may be found. The colonies of the former are white, those of the latter are lemon-color. With these exceptions they are in all essential cultural peculiarities similar to the *staphylococcus aureus*. As a rule they are not virulent for animals, and when they do possess pathogenic properties, it is in a much lower degree than is commonly the case with the golden *staphylococcus*. The *streptococcus pyogenes* is also sometimes present. The commonest of the pyogenic organisms however is that just described—the *staphylococcus pyogenes aureus*.

THE STREPTOCOCCUS PYOGENES.—From a spreading phlegmonous inflammation prepare cover-slips and cultures. What is the predominating organism? Does it appear as irregular clusters of grapes, or has its individuals a definite regular arrangement? Are its colonies like those of the *staphylococcus pyogenes aureus*?

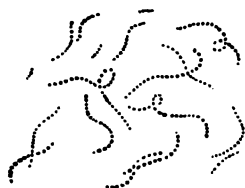
Isolate this organism in pure cultures. In these cultures it will be found on microscopic examination to present an arrangement somewhat like a chain of beads. (Fig. 47.)

Determine its peculiarities and describe them accurately. They should be as follows:

Upon microscopic examination a micrococcus should be found, but differing in its arrangement from the *staphylococci* just described. The single cells are not

scattered irregularly or arranged in clumps similar to bunches of grapes, but are joined together in chains like strands of beads. These strands are sometimes regular in the arrangement and size of the individual cells composing them, but more commonly certain irregular parts may be seen in them. Here they appear as if two or

FIG. 47.



Streptococcus pyogenes.

three cells had fused together to form a link, so to speak, in the chain that is somewhat longer than the remaining links; again, portions of the chain may be thinner than the rest, or may appear broken or ragged. Commonly the individuals comprising this chain of cocci are not round, but appear flattened on the sides adjacent to one another. The chains are sometimes short, consisting of four to six cells, or again they may be much longer, and extend from a half to two-thirds across the field of the microscope.

Under artificial conditions it sometimes grows well, and can be cultivated through many generations, while again it rapidly loses its vitality. When isolated from the diseased area upon artificial media it seems to retain its vitality for a longer period if replanted upon fresh media every day or two for a time; but if the first generation is not treated in this way, but allowed to re-

main upon the original medium, it is not uncommon to find the organism incapable of further cultivation after a week or ten days.

Under no conditions is the growth of this organism very luxuriant.

On gelatin plates its colonies appear after forty-eight to seventy-two hours as very small, flat, round points, of a bluish-white or opalescent appearance. They do not cause liquefaction of the gelatin, and in size they rarely exceed 0.6–0.8 mm. in diameter. Under low magnifying power they have a brownish or yellowish tinge by transmitted light, and are finely granular. As the colonies become older their regular border may become slightly irregular or notched.

In stab cultures in gelatin they grow along the entire needle-track as a finely granular line, the granules representing minute colonies of the organism. On the surface the growth does not usually extend beyond the point of puncture.

On agar-agar plates the colonies appear as minute pearly points, which when slightly magnified are seen to be finely granular, of a light-brownish color, and regular at their margins.

When smeared upon the surface of agar-agar or gelatin slants the growth that results is a thin, pearly, finely granular layer, consisting of minute colonies growing closely side by side. Its growth is most luxuriant on glycerin agar-agar at the temperature of the incubator (37.5° C.), and least on gelatin.

On blood-serum its colonies present little that is characteristic; they appear as small, moist, whitish points, from 0.6 to 0.8 mm. in diameter, that are slightly elevated above the surface of the serum. They

do not coalesce to form a layer over the surface, but remain as isolated colonies.

On potato no visible development appears, but after a short time (thirty-six to seventy-two hours) there is a slight increase of moisture about the point inoculated, and microscopic examination shows that a multiplication of the organisms placed at this point has occurred.

In milk its conduct is not always the same, some cultures causing a separation of the milk into a firm clot and colorless whey, while others do not produce this coagulation. The latter, when cultivated in milk of a neutral or slightly alkaline reaction, to which a few drops of litmus tincture has been added, produce a very faint pink color after twenty-four hours at 37.5° C.; this change in color is not apparently due to the production of acidity, as there is no coagulation, and the reaction of the milk when tested by delicate litmus or by curcuma paper is sometimes seen to be still slightly alkaline, and to remain so for several weeks.

In bouillon it grows as tangled masses or clumps, which upon microscopic examination are seen to consist of long chains of cocci twisted or matted together.

It grows best at the temperature of the body (37.5° C.), and develops, but less rapidly, at the ordinary room temperature.

It is a facultative anaërobe.

It stains with the ordinary aniline dyes, and is not decolorized when subjected to Gram's method.

It is not motile, and, being a micrococcus, does not form spores. Under artificial conditions we have no reason to believe that it enters a stage where its resistance to detrimental agencies is increased. In the tissues of the body, however, it appears to possess a

marked tenacity to vitality, for it is not rare to observe recurrences of inflammatory conditions due to this organism, often at a relatively long time after the primary site of infection is healed

When introduced into the tissues of lower animals its effects are uncertain. Rosenbach and Passet claimed that protracted, progressive, erysipelatoid inflammations were produced, and Fehleisen, who described a streptococcus in erysipelas that is in all probability identical with the streptococcus pyogenes now under consideration, stated that it produced in the tissues of rabbits (the base of the ear) a sharply defined migratory reddening without pus-formation. As a rule, it is difficult to obtain any definite pathological alterations in the tissues of animals through the introduction into them of cultures of this organism by any of the methods of inoculation ordinarily practised.

This is the *streptococcus pyogenes*, and is the organism most commonly found in rapidly *spreading* suppuration in contradistinction to the staphylococcus pyogenes aureus, which is most frequently found in *circumscribed* abscess-formations; they may be found together.

If the opportunity presents, obtain cultures from a case of erysipelas. Compare the organism thus obtained with the streptococcus just mentioned. Inoculate a rabbit both subcutaneously and into the circulation with about 0.2 c.c. of a pure culture of these organisms in bouillon. Do the results correspond, and do they in any way suggest the results obtained with the staphylococcus pyogenes aureus when introduced into animals in the same way? Do these streptococci flourish readily on ordinary media?

The organisms that have just been described are com-

monly known as the "pyogenic cocci" of Ogston, Rosenbach, and Passet, and up to as late as 1885 were believed to be the specific factors concerned in the production of suppurative inflammations. Since that time, however, considerable modification of this view has taken place, and while they are still known to be the most common causes of suppuration, they are also known not to be the *only* causes of this process.

With the more general application of bacteriological methods to the study of the manifold conditions coming under the eye of the physician, the surgeon, and the pathologist, results are constantly being obtained that do not accord with the view formerly held in regard to the specific relation of the pyogenic cocci to all forms of suppuration. There is an abundance of evidence now at command to justify the opinion that there are a number of organisms not commonly classed as pyogenic which may, under peculiar circumstances, assume this property. For example :

The bacillus of typhoid fever has been found in pure culture in osteomyelitis of the ribs ; in acute purulent otitis media ; in abscess of the soft parts ; in the pus of empyema, and in localized fibro-peritonitis, either during its course or as a sequela of typhoid fever.

The bacterium coli commune has been found to be present in pure culture in acute peritonitis ; in liver abscess ; in purulent inflammation of the gall-bladder and ducts ; in appendicitis ; and Welch¹ has found it in pure culture in fifteen different inflammatory conditions.

The micrococcus lanceolatus (pneumococcus) has been found to be the only organism present in abscess of the

¹ Welch : "Conditions Underlying the Infection of Wounds," American Journal of the Medical Sciences, November, 1891.

soft parts ; in purulent infiltration of the tissues about a fracture ; in purulent cerebro-spinal meningitis ; in suppurative synovitis ; in acute pericarditis, and in acute inflammation of the middle ear.

Moreover, many of the less common organisms have been detected in pure cultures in inflammatory conditions with which they were not previously thought to be concerned, and to which they are not usually related etiologically.

In consideration of such evidence as this, it is plain that we can no longer adhere rigidly to the opinions formerly held upon the etiology of suppuration, but must subject them to modifications in conformity with this newer evidence. We now know that there exist bacteria other than the "pyogenic cocci," which, though not normally pyogenic, may give rise to tissue changes indistinguishable from those produced by the ordinary pus organisms.¹

THE BACILLUS PYOCYANUS (BACILLUS OF GREEN PUS).

Another common organism that may properly be mentioned at this place, though perhaps not strictly pyogenic, is a bacillus frequently found in discharges from wounds, viz., the *bacillus pyocyaneus*, or bacillus of green pus, or of blue pus, or of blue-green pus, as it is commonly called. The bacillus pyocyaneus is a delicate rod with rounded or pointed ends. It is actively motile ; does not form spores. As seen in preparations made from cultures it is commonly elus-

¹ For a more detailed discussion of the subject, see "The Factors Concerned in the Production of Suppuration," *International Med. Mag.*, Phila., May, 1892.

tered together in irregular masses. It does not form long filaments, there being rarely more than four joined together end to end, and most frequently not even two.

It grows readily on all artificial media, and gives to some of them a bright-green color, that is most conspicuous where it is in contact with the air. This green color is not seen in the growth itself to any extent, but is diffused through the medium on which the organism is developing. With time this color becomes much darker, and in very old agar cultures may become almost black (sometimes very dark blue-green, at others brownish-black).

Its growth on gelatin in stab cultures is accompanied by liquefaction, and the diffusion of a bright-green color throughout the unliquefied medium. As liquefaction continues and the entire gelatin ultimately becomes fluid, the green color is confined to the superficial layers that are in contact with the air. The form taken by the liquefying portion of the gelatin in the earliest stages of development is somewhat that of an irregular, slender funnel. (See Fig. 48.)

On gelatin plates the colonies develop rapidly; they are not sharply circumscribed, but usually present at first a fringe of delicate filaments about their periphery (see Fig. 49); as growth progresses and liquefaction becomes more advanced the central mass of the colony sinks into the liquefied depression, while at the same time there is an extension of the colony laterally. At this stage the colony, when slightly magnified, may present various appearances, the most common being that shown in Fig. 50.

The gelatin between the growing colonies takes on a bright yellowish-green color, but as growth is compar-

atively rapid, it is quickly entirely liquefied, and one often sees the colonies floating about in the pale-green fluid.

FIG. 48.



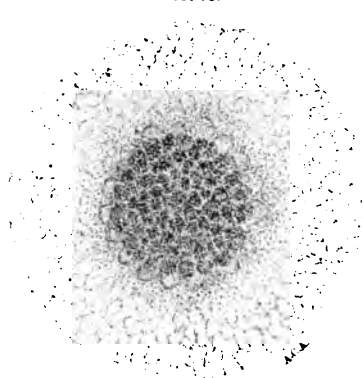
Stab culture of *b. pyocyaneus* in gelatin after twenty-eight hours at 22° C.

FIG. 49.



Colony of *b. pyocyaneus* after twenty-four hours on gelatin at 20°-22° C.

FIG. 50.



Colony of *b. pyocyaneus* after forty-two hours on gelatin at 20°-22° C.

On agar-agar the growth is dry, sometimes with a slight metallic lustre, and is of a whitish or greenish-white color, while the surrounding agar is bright green. With time this bright green becomes darker, passing to blue-green, and finally turns almost black.

On potato the growth is brownish, dry, and slightly elevated above the surface. With some cultures the potato about the growth becomes green; with others this change is not so noticeable. With many cul-

tures a peculiar phenomenon may be produced by lightly touching the growth with a sterilized platinum needle. This phenomenon consists in a change of color from brown to green at the point touched. It is best seen in cultures that have been kept in the incubator for from seventy-two to ninety-six hours. It occurs in from one to three minutes after touching with the needle, and may last from ten minutes to half an hour. This is the "chameleon phenomenon" of Paul Ernst.

In bouillon the green color appears, and the growth is seen in the form of delicate flocculi. A very delicate mycoderma is also produced.

In milk it causes an acid reaction, with coincident coagulation of the casein.

On blood serum and egg albumin its growth is accompanied by liquefaction. The growth on coagulated egg albumin is seen as a dirty-gray deposit surrounded by a narrow brownish zone; the remaining portion of the medium is bright green in color. As the culture becomes older the green may give way to a brown discoloration.

In peptone solution (double strength) it causes a bluish-green color. In one of four cultures from different sources there was only a blue color produced.

It produces indol.

It stains with the ordinary dyes, and its flagella may be readily demonstrated by Löffler's method of staining.

Inoculation into animals. As a rule, cultures of this organism obtained directly from the discharges of a wound are capable, when introduced into animals, of lighting up diseased conditions; but cultures that are kept on artificial media for a long time may in part, or completely, lose this power.

When guinea-pigs or rabbits are inoculated subcuta-

neously with 1 c.c. of virulent fluid cultures of this organism death usually results in from eighteen to thirty-six hours. At the seat of inoculation there is found an extensive purulent infiltration of the tissues and a marked zone of inflammatory œdema.

When introduced directly into the peritoneal cavity the results are also fatal, and at autopsy a genuine fibrinous peritonitis is found. There is usually an accumulation of serum in both the peritoneal and pleural cavities. At autopsies after both methods of inoculation the organisms will be found in the blood and internal viscera in pure cultures.

When animals are inoculated with small doses (less than 1 c.c. of a bouillon culture) of this organism, death may not ensue, and only a local inflammatory reaction (abscess formation) may be set up. In these cases the animals are usually protected against subsequent inoculation with doses that would otherwise prove fatal.

Most interesting in connection with the bacillus pyocyanus is the fact, as brought out in the experiments of Bouchar'd, and of Charrin and others, that its products possess the power of counteracting the pathogenic activities of the bacillus anthracis. That is to say, if an animal is inoculated with a virulent anthrax culture, and soon after is inoculated with a culture of the bacillus pyocyanus, the fatal effects of the former inoculation may be prevented.

In the literature upon the green-producing organisms that have been found in inflammatory conditions, several varieties—believed to be distinct species—have been described, but when cultivated side by side their biological differences are seen to be so slight as to render it probable that they are but modifications of one and the same species.

CHAPTER XVII.

Sputum septicæmia—Septicæmia resulting from the presence of the micrococcus tetragenus in the tissues—Tuberculosis.

OBTAIN from a tuberculous patient a sample of fresh sputum—that of the morning is preferable. Spread it out in a thin layer upon a black glass plate and select one of the small, white, cheesy masses or dense mucous clumps that will be seen scattered through the sputum. With a pointed forceps smear it carefully upon two or three thin cover-slips, dry and fix them in the way given for ordinary cover-slip preparations. Stain one in the ordinary way with Löffler's alkaline methylene blue solution, the other by the Gram method, the third after the method given for tubercle bacilli in fluids or sputum.

In that stained by Löffler's method—slip No. 1—will be seen a great variety of organisms—round cells, ovals, short and long rods, perhaps spiral forms. But not infrequently will be seen diplococci, having more or less of a lancet shape; they will be joined together by their broad ends, the points of the lancet being away from the point of juncture of the two cells. There may also be seen masses of cocci which are conspicuous for their arrangement into groups of fours, the adjacent surfaces being somewhat flattened. They are not sarcina, as one can see by the absence of the division in the third direction of space—they divide only in two directions.

In the slip stained by the Gram method the same groups of the cocci which grow as threes and fours will be seen, but our lancet-shaped diplococci will now present an altered appearance—there can now be detected a capsule surrounding them. This capsule is very delicate in structure, and though a frequent accompaniment is not constant. It can sometimes be demonstrated by the ordinary methods of staining, though the method of Gram is most satisfactory. (Fig. 52.)

In the third slip, which has been stained by the method given for tubercle bacilli in sputum, if decolorization has been properly conducted and no contrast stain has been employed, the field will be colorless or of only a very pale rose color. None of the numerous organisms seen in the first slip can now be detected, but instead there will be seen scattered through the field very delicate stained rods, which present, in most instances, a conspicuous beaded arrangement of their protoplasm—that is, the staining is not homogeneous, but at tolerably regular intervals along each rod there is seen alternating intervals of light and color. These rods may be found singly, in groups of twos or three, or sometimes in clumps consisting of large numbers. When in twos or threes it is not uncommon to find them describing an X or a V in their mode of arrangement, or again they will be seen lying parallel the one to the other.

If contrast stains are used, these rods will be detected and recognized by their retaining the original color with which they have been stained, whereas all other bacteria in the preparation, as well as the tissue-cells which are in the sputum, will take up the contrast color. (Fig. 51.)

These delicate beaded rods are the *bacillus tuberculosis*. The lancet-shaped diplococci with the capsule are the *micrococcus lanceolatus*.

FIG. 51.



Tuberculous sputum stained by Gabbet's method. Tubercle bacilli seen as red rods; all else is stained blue.

The cocci grouped in fours are the *micrococcus tetragenus*.

INOCULATION EXPERIMENT.—Inoculate into the subcutaneous tissues of a guinea-pig one of the small white caseous masses similar to that which has been examined microscopically. If death ensues it will be the result of one of the three following forms of infection:

a. Septicæmia¹ resulting from the introduction into the tissues of an organism frequently present in the sputum. It exists under the various names: micrococcus of sputum septicæmia; diplococcus pneumoniæ; pneumococcus of Fränkel; meningococcus; strepto-

¹ Septicæmia is that form of infection in which the blood is the chief field of activity of the organisms.

coccus lanceolatus Pasteuri; micrococcus lanceolatus; micrococcus Pasteuri; coccus lanceolatus; bacillus salivarius septicus; bacillus septicus sputigenous; diplococcus lanceolatus capsulatus; micrococcus pneumoniae crouposæ.

b. A form of septicæmia resulting from the invasion of the tissues by an organism frequently seen in the sputum of tuberculous subjects. It is characterized by its tendency to divide into fours. It is the *micrococcus tetragenus*.

c. General or local tuberculosis.

a. SPUTUM SEPTICÆMIA.

If at the end of twenty-four to thirty-six hours the animal is found dead, we may safely suspect that the result was produced by the introduction into the tissues of the organism of sputum septicæmia above mentioned, viz., the *micrococcus lanceolatus*, which is not uncommonly found in the mouth of healthy individuals as well as in other conditions.

Inspection of the seat of inoculation usually reveals a local reaction. "This may be of a serous, fibrinous, hemorrhagic, necrotic, or purulent character. Frequently we may find combinations of these conditions, such as fibro-purulent, fibrino-serous, or sero-hemorrhagic."¹ The most conspicuous naked-eye change undergone by the internal organs will be enlargement of the spleen. It is usually swollen, but may at times be normal in appearance. It is sometimes hard, dark red, and dry, or it may be soft and rich in blood. Frequently there is a limited fibrinous exudation over portions of the peritoneum.

¹ Welch: Johns Hopkins Hospital Bulletin, December, 1892, vol. iii. No. 27.

Except in the exudations, the organisms are found only in the lumen of the bloodvessels, where they are usually present in enormous numbers.

In the blood they are practically always free and are but rarely found within the bodies of leucocytes.

In stained preparations from the blood and exudates a capsule is not infrequently seen surrounding the organisms. (Fig. 52.) This, however, is not constant.

FIG. 52.

Micrococcus lanceolatus in blood of rabbit. Stained by method of Gram.
Decolorization not complete.

If a drop of blood from this animal be introduced into the tissues of a second animal (mouse or rabbit) identically the same conditions will be reproduced.

If the organism be isolated from the blood of the animal in pure culture, and a portion of this culture be introduced into the tissues of a susceptible animal, again we shall see the same pathological picture.

It must be remembered, however, that this organism when cultivated for a time on artificial media rapidly loses its virulent properties. If, therefore, failure to reproduce the disease after inoculation from old cultures

should occur, it is in all probability due to a disappearance of virulence from the organism.

This organism was discovered by Sternberg in 1880. It was subsequently described by A. Fränkel as the etiological factor in the production of acute fibrinous pneumonia.

It is not uncommonly present in the saliva of healthy individuals, having been found by Sternberg in the oral cavity of about 20 per cent. of healthy persons examined by him. It is constantly to be detected in the rusty sputum of patients suffering from acute fibrinous pneumonia. Its presence has been detected in the middle ear, in the pericardial sac, in the pleura, in the serous cavities of the brain, and indeed it may penetrate from its primary seat in the mouth to almost any of the more distant organs.

The organism is commonly found as a diplococcus, though here and there short chains of four to six individuals joined together may be detected. (Fig. 51, page 239.) The morphology of the individual cells is more or less oval, or, more strictly speaking, lancet-shaped, for at one end it is commonly pointed. When joined in pairs the junction is always between the broad ends of the ovals, *never* between the pointed extremities.

As already stated, in preparations directly from the sputum or from the blood of animals, a delicate capsule may frequently be seen surrounding them. Though fairly constant in preparations directly from the blood of animals and from the sputum or lungs of pneumonic patients, the capsule is but rarely observed in artificial cultures. Occasionally in cultures on blood-serum, in milk, and on agar-agar they can, according to some

authors, be detected ; but this is by no means constant or frequent.

This organism grows under artificial conditions very slowly, and frequently not at all.

When successfully grown upon the different media it presents somewhat the following appearance :

On gelatin it grows very slowly, if at all, probably owing in part to the low temperature at which gelatin cultures must be kept. If development occurs it appears as minute whitish or blue-white points on the plates. These very small colonies are round, finely granular, sharply circumscribed, and slightly elevated above the surface of the gelatin. The growth is very slow and no liquefaction of the gelatin accompanies it.

If grown in slant or stab cultures the surface development is very limited ; along the needle-track tiny whitish or bluish-white granules appear.

On nutrient agar-agar the colonies are almost transparent ; they are more or less glistening and very delicate in structure. On blood-serum development is more marked, though still extremely feeble. Here it also appears as a cluster of isolated fine points growing closely side by side.

A growth on potato is not usually observed. When grown in milk it commonly causes an acid reaction with coincident coagulation of the casein. Some varieties, especially non-virulent ones, do not coagulate milk.¹ It is not motile.

It grows best at a temperature of from 35° to 38° C. Under 24° C. there is usually no development, but in a few cases it has been seen to grow at as low a tem-

¹ Welch, loc. cit.

perature as 18° C. From 42° C. on the development is checked.

Under most favorable conditions the growth is very slow. It grows as well without as with oxygen. It is, therefore, one of the facultative anaërobic forms.

The most successful efforts at the cultivation of this organism are those seen when the agar-gelatin mixture of Guarniari is employed. (See this medium.)

It may be stained with the ordinary aniline staining reagents. For demonstration of the capsule the method of Gram gives the best results. (See *Stainings*.)

This organism is conspicuous for the irregularity of its behavior when grown under artificial conditions; usually it loses its pathogenic properties after a few generations; but again this peculiarity may be retained for a much longer time. Not rarely it fails to grow after three or four transplantations on artificial media, though at times it may be carried through many generations.

Inoculation into animals. The results of inoculations with pure cultures of this organism are also conspicuous for their irregularity. Most commonly when the organism is of full virulence the form of septicæmia just described is produced, but at times it is found to be totally devoid of pathogenic powers; between these extremes cultures may be obtained possessing all variations in the intensity of their disease-producing properties. The principal pathological conditions that may be produced by this organism by inoculations into animals, according to the degree of its virulence, are acute septicæmia, spreading inflammatory exudations, and circumscribed abscesses. All three of these conditions may sometimes be produced

by inoculating the same culture into rabbits in varying amounts.

Rabbits, mice, guinea-pigs, dogs, rats, cats, and sheep are susceptible to infection by this organism. Chickens and pigeons are insusceptible. Young animals, as a rule, are more easily infected than old ones. Rabbits and mice are the most susceptible of the animals used for experimental purposes, and in testing the virulence of a culture it is well to inoculate one of each, for with the same cultures it sometimes occurs that it may be virulent for mice and not for rabbits, and *vice versa*.

If the culture is virulent, intra-vascular or intra-peritoneal injections into rabbits may produce rapid and fatal septicæmia, while subcutaneous inoculation of the same material may result in only a localized inflammatory process. On the other hand, subcutaneous inoculation of less virulent cultures may produce a local process, while intra-venous inoculation may be without result. This organism is the cause of a number of pathological conditions in human beings that have not hitherto been considered as related to one another etiologically. It is always present in the inflamed area of the lung in acute fibrinous or lobar pneumonia; it is known to cause acute cerebro-spinal meningitis, endo- and pericarditis, certain forms of pleuritis, arthritis and peri-arthritis, and otitis media.

b. SEPTICÆMIA CAUSED BY THE MICROCOCCUS
TETRAGENUS.

Should the death of the animal not occur within the first twenty-eight to thirty hours after inoculation, but be postponed until between the fourth and the eighth

day, it may occur as a result of invasion of the tissues by the organism now to be described, viz., the *micrococcus tetragenus*.

This organism was discovered by Gaffky and was subsequently described by Koch in the account of his experiments upon tuberculosis. It is often present in the saliva of healthy individuals and is commonly present in the sputum of tuberculous patients. Koch found it very frequently in the lung cavities of phthisical patients. It, however, plays no part in the etiology of tuberculosis.

It is a small round coccus of about $1\ \mu$ transverse diameter. It is seen as single cells, joined in pairs and in threes, but its most conspicuous grouping is in fours, from which arrangement it takes its name. In preparations made from cultures of this organism it is not rare to find, here and there, single bodies which are much larger than the other individuals in the field. Close inspection reveals them to be cells in the initial stage of division into twos and fours. A peculiarity of this organism is that the cells are seen to be bound together by a transparent gelatinous substance.

When cultivated artificially it grows very slowly.

Upon gelatin plates the colonies appear as round, sharply circumscribed, punctiform masses which are slightly elevated above the surface of the surrounding medium. Under a low magnifying power they are seen to be slightly granular and present a more or less glassy lustre.

The colonies increase but little in size after the third or fourth day. If cultivated as stab cultures in gelatin there appears upon the surface at the point of inoculation a circumscribed white point, slightly elevated above

the surface and limited to the immediate neighborhood of the point of inoculation. Down the needle-track the growth is not continuous, but appears in isolated, round, dense white clumps or beads, which do not develop beyond the size of very small points.

It does not liquefy gelatin.

Upon plates of nutrient agar-agar the colonies appear as small, almost transparent, round points, which have about the same color and appearance as a drop of egg albumin; they are very slightly opaque. They are moist and glistening. They rarely develop to an extent exceeding 1 to 2 mm. in diameter.

Upon agar-agar as stab or slant cultures, the surface growth has more or less of a mucoid appearance. It is moist, glistening, and irregularly outlined. The outline of the growth depends upon the moisture of the agar. It is slightly elevated above the surface of the medium.

In contradistinction to the gelatin stab-cultures, the growth in agar-agar is continuous along the track of the needle.

The growth on potato is a thick, irregular, slimy-looking patch.

The presence of the transparent gelatinous substance which is seen to surround these organisms renders them coherent, so that efforts to take up a portion of a colony from the agar-agar or potato cultures result usually in drawing out fine silky threads consisting of organisms imbedded in this gelatinous material.

The organism grows best at from 35° C. to 38° C., but can be cultivated at the ordinary room temperature—about 20° C.

The growth under all conditions is slow.

It grows both in the presence of and without oxygen.

It is not motile.

It stains readily with all the ordinary aniline dyes. In tissues its presence is readily demonstrated by the staining method of Gram.

The grouping into fours is particularly well seen in sections from the organs of animals dead of this form of septicæmia.

In such sections the organisms will always be found within the capillaries.

Inoculation into animals. To the naked eye no alteration can be seen in the organs of animals that have died as a result of inoculation with the *micrococcus tetragenus*; but microscopic examination of cover-slip preparations from the blood and viscera reveals the presence of the organisms throughout the body—especially is this true of preparations from the spleen. White mice and guinea-pigs are susceptible to the disease. Gray mice, dogs, and rabbits are not susceptible to this form of septicæmia. Subsequent inoculation of healthy animals with a drop of blood, a bit of tissue, or a portion of a pure culture of this organism from the body of an animal dead of the disease, results in a reproduction of the conditions found in the dead animal from which the tissues or cultures were obtained.

It sometimes occurs that in guinea-pigs which have been inoculated with this organism there results local pus-formations instead of a general septicæmia. The organisms will then be found in the pus-cavity.

CHAPTER XVIII.

Tuberculosis—Microscopic appearance of miliary tubercles—Encapsulation of tuberculous foci—Diffuse caseation—Cavity-formation—Primary infection—Modes of infection—Location of the bacilli in the tissues—Staining peculiarities—Organisms with which the bacillus tuberculosis may be confounded—Points of differentiation.

SHOULD the animal succumb to neither of the septic processes just described, then its death from tuberculosis may be reasonably expected.

When this disease is in progress, alterations in the lymphatic glands nearest the seat of inoculation may be detected by the touch in from two to four weeks. They will then be found to be enlarged. Though not constant, tumefaction and subsequent ulceration at the point of inoculation may sometimes be observed. Progressive emaciation, loss of appetite, and difficulty in respiration point to the existence of the tubercular process. Death ensues in from four to eight weeks after inoculation. At autopsy either general or local tuberculosis may be found. The expressions of the tubercular process are so manifold and in different animals differ so widely the one from the other, that no rigid law as to what will appear at autopsy can *à priori* be laid down.

The guinea-pig, which is best suited for this experiment, because of the greater regularity of its susceptibility to the disease over that of other animals usually found in the laboratory, presents, in the main, changes that are characterized by a condition of coagulation-necrosis and caseation. This is particularly the case

when the infection is general, *i. e.*, when the process is of the acute miliary type. This pathological-anatomical alteration is best seen in the tissues of the liver and spleen of these animals, where the condition is most pronounced.

In general, the tubercular lesions can be divided into those of strictly focal character—the miliary and the conglomerate tubercles, and those which are more diffuse in their nature. The latter lesions, although of the same fundamental nature as the miliary tubercles, are much greater in extent and not so sharply circumscribed.

These latter lesions play a greater rôle in the pathology of the disease than do the miliary nodules, although it is to the presence of the latter that the disease owes its name.

At autopsy the pathological manifestations of the disease are not infrequently seen to be confined to the seat of inoculation and the neighboring lymphatic glands. These tissues will then present all the characteristics of the tuberculous process in the stage of cheesy degeneration. When the disease is general the degree of its extension varies. Sometimes the small gray nodules—the miliary tubercles—are only to be seen with the naked eye in the tissues of the liver and spleen. Again, they may invade the lungs, and commonly they are distributed over the serous membranes of the intestines, the lungs, the heart, and the brain. These simple gray nodules, as seen by the naked eye, vary in size from that of a pin-point to that of a hemp-seed, and as a rule are, in this stage, the result of the fusion of two or more smaller miliary foci. Though the two terms, “miliary” and “conglomerate,” exist for the description of the macroscopic appearance of

these nodules, yet it is very rare that any condition other than that due to the fusion together of several of these minute foci can be detected by the naked eye.

The miliary tubercles are of a pale gray color, with a white centre, are slightly elevated above the surface of the tissue in which they exist, and, as stated, vary considerably in dimensions, usually appearing as points which range in size from that of a pin-point to that of a pin-head. They are not only located upon the surface of the organs, but are distributed through the depths of the tissues. To the touch they sometimes present nothing characteristic, but may frequently, when closely packed together in large numbers, give a mealy or sandy sensation to the fingers. Stained sections of these miliary tubercles present an entirely characteristic appearance, and the disease may be diagnosticated by these histological changes alone, though the crucial test in the diagnosis is the finding of tubercle bacilli in these nodules.

MICROSCOPIC APPEARANCE OF MILIARY TUBERCLES.—The simple miliary tubercles under the low magnifying power of the microscope present somewhat the following appearance: There is a central pale area, evidently composed of necrotic tissue because of its incapacity for taking up the nuclear stains commonly employed. Scattered here and there through this necrotic area may be seen granular masses irregular in size and shape; they take up the stains employed and are evidently the fragments of cell-nuclei in the course of destruction. Through the necrotic area may here and there be seen irregular lines, bands, or ridges, the remains of tissues not yet completely destroyed by the necrotic process. Around the periphery of this area may sometimes be noticed large multi-nucleated cells, the nuclei of which

The question as to its spore-forming property is still an open one, though the weight of evidence is in opposition to the opinion that it possesses this peculiarity. Certain observers claim to have demonstrated spores in the bacilli by particular methods of staining, but this statement can have but little weight when compared with the behavior of the organism when subjected to more conclusive tests. For example, it does not resist exposure to 3 per cent. carbolic acid solution for longer than five minutes, nor to 1 : 5000 sublimate solution for more than two minutes. It is destroyed in ten minutes in some experiments, and in five in others, by a temperature of 55° C., and when dried it loses its vitality, according to different observers, in from thirty to forty days; all of which speak directly against this being a spore-bearing bacillus.

It is not motile, and does not, therefore, possess flagella.

It grows readily on the ordinary nutrient media at from 25° C. to 38° C.

Upon nutrient agar-agar, both with and without glycerin, it appears as a moist, opaque, glazed layer, with nothing characteristic about it. This is true both for smear cultures and for single colonies.

Its growth on gelatin is much less voluminous than on media that can be kept at higher temperature, though it does grow on this media at room temperature without causing liquefaction.

Its growth on blood-serum is seen in the form of a moist, opaque, slimy layer, inclining to a yellowish or dirty brownish-yellow tinge. It does not liquefy the serum.

On potato its growth is moderately rapid, appearing

area of tissue undergoes the same process of necrosis and caseation as the centre of the miliary tubercle. In some tissues it is more marked than in others. These tissues are the lungs and the lymph-glands. In rabbits, particularly, all the changes in the lung frequently come under this head. When this is the case solid masses are found, sometimes as large as a pea, or involving even an entire lobe or the whole lung in some cases. They are of a whitish-yellow, opaque color, and on section are peculiarly dry and hard. Entire lymphatic glands may be changed in this way. The conditions for this caseation of the tissues are probably given when a large number of tubercle bacillus enter the tissue simultaneously and a wide area is involved, instead of the small centre of the miliary tubercle. Necrosis is so rapid that time is not given for those reactive changes to take place in the tissues which result in the formation of the outer zone of the miliary tubercle. In other instances the entire caseous area is surrounded by a granulation zone similar to that around the caseous centre of the miliary tubercles. It is of special importance to recognize the connection between this diffuse caseation of the tissue and the tubercle bacillus because until its nature was accurately determined the caseous pneumonia of the lungs formed the chief obstacle which many had in recognizing the infectiousness of tuberculosis.

CAVITY-FORMATION.—The production of cavities which forms such a prominent feature in human tuberculosis, particularly in the lungs, is due to the softening of the necrotic caseous masses or of aggregations of miliary tubercles. The material softens and is expelled, and a cavity remains. In the wall of this cavity

the tuberculous changes still proceed, both as diffuse caseation and formation of miliary tubercles. The whole cavity, with the reactive changes in the tissues of its walls, may be considered as representing a single tubercle, its wall forming a tissue very analogous to the outer zone of the single tubercle, the cavity itself corresponding to the caseous centre. In animals used for experiment cavity-formation of this sort is very rare, owing to the greater resistance of the caseous tissue.

In the contents and in the walls of tubercular cavities bacteria other than the tubercle bacilli are found. It is to the influence of some of these, as we have just seen, that diseases other than tuberculosis may sometimes be produced by the inoculation of animals with the sputum from such cases.

ENCAPSULATION OF TUBERCULAR FOCI.—It not uncommonly occurs that round about a necrotic tubercular focus there is formed a fibrous capsule which may completely cut off the diseased from the healthy tissue surrounding it. Or a tubercular focus may, through the resistance of the tissue in which it is located, be more or less completely isolated. In this condition the diseased foci may lie dormant for a long time and give no evidence of their existence, until by some intercurrent interference they are caused to break through their envelopes. With the passage of the bacilli or their spores from the central foci into the vascular or lymphatic circulation the disease may then become general.

It is to some such accident as this that the sudden appearance of general tubercular infection in subjects supposed to have recovered from the primary local manifestations may often be attributed. The breaking-

down of old caseous lymphatic glands is a common example of this condition.

PRIMARY INFECTION.—The primary infection occurs through either the vascular or lymphatic circulation. Through these channels the bacilli gain access to the tissues and become lodged in the finer capillary ramifications or in the more minute lymph-spaces. Here they find conditions favorable to their development, and in the course of this process produce substances of a chemical nature which act directly in bringing about the death of the tissues in their immediate neighborhood. This tissue-death is probably the very first effect of the bacilli in the body, and represents the necrotic centre, which can always be seen in even the most minute tubercles. With the production of this progressive necrosis—for progressive it is, as it continues as long as the bacilli live and continue to produce their poisonous products—there is in addition a reactive change in the surrounding tissues, which consists in the formation of the granulation zone at the outer margins of the dying and dead tissue. This zone consists of small, round granulation-cells and of leucocytes, all of which are seen in the meshes of the finer fibrous tissues of the part. At the same time alterations are produced in the walls of the vessels of the locality; this tends to occlude them, and thus the process of tissue-death is favored by a diminution of the amount of nutrition brought to them. These changes continue until eventually the life processes of the bacilli are checked, or conglomerate tubercles, widespread caseation, or cavity-formation results.

MODES OF INFECTION.—Experimentally, tuberculosis may be produced in susceptible animals by subcutaneous

inoculation; by direct injection into the circulation; by injection into the peritoneal cavity; by feeding of tuberculous material; by the introduction of the bacilli into the air-passages, and by inoculation into the anterior chamber of the eye.

In the human subject the most common portals of infection are, doubtless, the air-passages, the alimentary tract, and cutaneous wounds. When introduced subcutaneously the resulting process finds its most pronounced expression in the lymphatic system. The growing bacilli make their way into the lymphatic spaces of the loose cellular tissue, are taken up in the lymph stream and deposited in the neighboring lymphatic glands. Here they may remain and give rise to no alteration further than that seen in the glands themselves, or they may pass on to neighboring glands, and eventually be disseminated throughout the whole lymphatic system, ultimately reaching the vascular system.

When having gained access to the bloodvessels, the results are the same as those following upon intravascular injection of the bacilli, namely: general tuberculosis quickly follows, with the most conspicuous production of miliary tubercles in the lungs and kidneys, less numerous in the spleen, liver, and bone marrow.

When inhaled into the lungs, if conditions are favorable, multiplication of the bacilli quickly follows. With their growth they are mechanically pressed into the tissues of the lungs. As multiplication continues some are transported from the primary seat of infection to healthy portions of the lung tissue, there to give rise to a further production of the tubercular process.

In the same way infection through the alimentary tract is in the main due to mechanical pressure of

the bacilli upon the walls of the intestines. Investigation has shown that lesions of the intestinal coats are not necessary for the entrance of tubercle bacilli from the intestines into the body. They may be transported from the intestinal tract into the lymphatics in the same way that the fat droplets of the chyle find entrance into the lymphatic circulation.

The evidence produced by Cornet¹ points to the lungs as the most common portals of natural infection for the human being. Unlike most pathogenic organisms, the tubercle bacillus has the property of forming spores within the tissues. These spores, which are highly resistant and are not destroyed by drying, are thrown off from the lungs in the sputum of tuberculous patients in large number, and unless special precautions are taken to prevent it the sputum becomes dried, is ground into dust, and sets free in the atmosphere the spores of tubercle bacilli which came with it from the lungs. The frequency of pulmonary tuberculosis points to this as one of the commonest sources and modes of infection.

LOCATION OF THE BACILLI IN THE TISSUES.—The bacilli will be found to be most numerous in those tissues which are in the active stage of the process.

In the very initial stage of the disease the bacilli will be fewer in number than later. At this time only here and there single rods may be found; later they will be more numerous, and, finally, when the process has advanced to a stage easily recognizable by the naked eye, they will be found in the granulation zones in clumps and scattered about in large numbers.

In the central necrotic masses, which consist of cell

¹ Cornet: *Zelt. für Hygiene*, 1889, Bd. v., S. 191.

detritus, it is rare that the organisms can be demonstrated microscopically. It is at the periphery of these areas and in the progressing granular zone that they are most frequently to be seen.

This apparent absence of the bacilli from the central necrotic area must not be taken, however, as evidence that this tissue does not contain them. As bacilli, they are difficult to demonstrate here because the probabilities are that in this locality, owing to conditions unfavorable to their further growth, they are in the spore stage, a stage in which it is as yet impossible, with our present methods of staining, to render them visible. The fact that this tissue is infective, and with it the disease can be reproduced in susceptible animals, speaks for the accuracy of this assumption. A conspicuous example of this condition is seen in old scrofulous glands. These glands usually present a slow process, are commonly caseous, and always possess the property of producing the disease when introduced into the tissues of susceptible animals, and yet they are the most difficult of all tissues in which to demonstrate microscopically the presence of tubercle bacilli.

In tubercles containing giant-cells the bacilli can usually be demonstrated in the granular contents of these cells. Frequently they will be found accumulated at the pole of the cell opposite to that occupied by the nuclei, as if there existed an antagonism between the nuclei and the bacilli. In some of these cells, however, the distribution of the bacilli is seen to be irregular, and they will be found scattered among the nuclei as well as in the necrotic centre of the cell. As the number of bacilli in the giant-cell increases the cell itself is ultimately destroyed.

Tubercular tissues always contain the bacilli or their spores, and are always capable of reproducing the disease when introduced into the body of a susceptible animal. From the tissues of this animal the bacilli may again be obtained and cultivated artificially, and these cultures are capable of again producing the disease when further inoculated. Thus the postulates which are necessary to prove the etiological rôle of the organism in the production of this malady are all fulfilled.

THE TUBERCLE BACILLUS.—Of the three pathogenic organisms liable to occur in the sputum of a tuberculous subject, the tubercle bacillus will give us most difficulty in our efforts at cultivation.

It is, in the strict sense of the word, a parasite and finds conditions entirely favorable to its development only in the animal body. On ordinary artificial media the bacilli taken directly from the animal body grow only very imperfectly or in many cases not at all. From this it seems probable that there is a difference in the nature of individual tubercle bacilli—some appearing to be capable only of growth in the animal tissues, while others are apparently possessed of the power to lead a limited saprophytic existence. It may be, therefore, that those bacilli which we obtain as artificial cultures from the animal body are offsprings from the more saprophytic varieties. At best, one never sees with the tubercle bacillus a saprophytic condition in any way comparable to that possessed by many of the other organisms with which we have to deal.

In efforts to cultivate this organism directly from the tissues of the animal, the method by which one obtains the best results is that recommended by Koch—cultiva-

tion upon blood-serum. So strictly is this organism a parasite that very limited alterations in the conditions under which it is growing may result in failure to successfully study it. It is, therefore, necessary that the injunctions for obtaining it in pure culture should be carefully observed.

The blood-serum upon which the organism is to be cultivated should be comparatively freshly prepared—that is, it should not be dry.

PREPARATION OF CULTURES FROM TISSUES.—Under strictest antiseptic precautions, remove from the animal the tubercular tissue—the liver, spleen, or a lymphatic gland being preferable. Place the tissue in a sterilized Petri dish and dissect out with sterilized scissors and forceps the small tubercular nodules. Place each nodule upon the surface of the blood-serum, one nodule in each tube, and with a heavy, sterilized, looped platinum needle or spatula, rub it carefully over the surface. It is best to dissect away twenty to thirty such tubercles and treat each in the same way. Some of the tubes will remain sterile, others may be contaminated by outside organisms during the manipulation, while a few may give the result desired—a growth of the bacilli themselves.

After inoculating the tubes they should be carefully sealed up to prevent evaporation and consequent drying. This is done by burning off the superfluous overhanging cotton plug in the gas-flame, and then impregnating the upper layers of the cotton with either sealing-wax or paraffin of a high melting-point; or by inserting over the burned end of the cotton plug a soft, closely fitting cork that has been sterilized in the steam sterilizer just before using (Ghriskey). This precaution

is necessary because of the slow growth of the organism. Under the most favorable conditions tubercle bacilli directly from the animal body show no evidence of growth for about twelve days after inoculation upon blood-serum, and, as they must be retained during this time at the body temperature—37.5 C.—evaporation would take place very rapidly and the medium would become too dry for their development.

If these primary efforts result in the appearance of a culture of the bacilli, further cultivations may be made by taking up a bit of the colony, preferably a moderately large quantity, and transferring it to fresh serum, and this in turn is sealed up and retained at the same temperature. Once having obtained the organism in pure culture its subsequent cultivation may be conducted upon the glycerin-agar agar mixture—ordinary neutral nutrient agar-agar to which 6 or 7 per cent. of glycerin has been added. This is a very favorable medium for the growth of this organism after once having established its saprophytic form of existence, though blood-serum is perhaps the best medium to be employed in obtaining the first generation of the organism from the tubercular tissues.

The organism may be cultivated also on neutral milk to which 1 per cent. of agar-agar has been added, also upon the surface of potato, and likewise in meat infusion bouillon containing 6 or 7 per cent of glycerin.

Cultures of the tubercle bacillus are characteristic in appearance—after once having seen them there is but little probability of subsequent mistake.

They appear as dry masses, which may develop upon the surface of the medium either as flat scales or as

lumps of mealy-looking granules. They are never moist, and frequently have the appearance of coarse meal which has been spread upon the surface of the medium. In the lower part of the tube in which they are growing, *i. e.*, that part occupied by a few drops of fluid which has in part been squeezed from the medium during the process of solidification, and is in part water of condensation, the colonies may be seen to float as a thin pellicle upon the surface of the fluid.

The individuals making up the growth adhere so tenaciously together that it is with the greatest difficulty that they can be completely separated. In even the oldest and driest cultures pulverization is impossible. The masses can only be separated and broken up by grinding in a mortar with the addition of some foreign substance, such as very fine, sterilized sand, dust, etc.

The cultures are of a dirty-drab or brownish-gray color when seen on serum or on glycerin-agar-agar.

On potato they grow in practically the same way, though the development is much more limited. They are here of nearly the same color as the potato on which they are growing.

On milk-agar-agar they are of so nearly the same color as the medium that, unless they are growing as the mealy-looking masses considerably elevated above the surface, their presence is less conspicuous than when on the other media.

In bouillon they grow as a thin pellicle on the surface. This may fall to the bottom of the fluid and continue to develop, its place on the surface being taken by a second pellicle.

Under all conditions of artificial development the cultures of this organism are always very dry and

brittle in appearance, though in truth the individuals adhere tenaciously together by a very glutinous substance.

The tubercle bacillus does not develop on gelatin, because of the low temperature at which this medium must be used.

MICROSCOPIC APPEARANCE OF THE TUBERCLE BACILLUS.—Microscopically the organism itself is a delicate rod, usually somewhat beaded in its structure, though rarely it is seen to be homogeneous. It is either quite straight or somewhat curved or bent on its long axis. In some preparations involution-forms, consisting of rods a little clubbed at one extremity or slightly bulging at different points, may be detected. It varies in length—sometimes being seen in very short segments, again much longer, though never as long threads. On an average its length is seen to vary from 2 to 5 μ . It is commonly described as being in length about one-fourth to one-half the diameter of a red blood-corpuscle. It is very slender. (Fig. 51, page 239.)

These rods usually present, as has been said, an appearance of alternate stained and colorless portions. It is the latter portions which are believed to be the spores of the organism, though as yet no absolute proof of this opinion has been established.

At times these colorless portions are seen to bulge slightly beyond the contour of the rod, and in this way give to the rods the beaded appearance so commonly ascribed to them.

STAINING PECULIARITIES.—A peculiarity of this organism is its behavior toward staining reagents, and by this means alone it may be easily recognized. The tubercle bacillus does not stain by the ordinary methods.

It possesses some peculiarity in its composition that renders it more or less proof against the simpler dyes. It is therefore necessary that more energetic and penetrating reagents than the ordinary watery solutions should be employed. Experience has taught us that certain substances not only increase the solubility of the aniline coloring substances, but by their presence the penetration of the coloring agents is very much increased. Two of these substances are aniline oil and carbolic acid. They are employed in the solutions to about the point of saturation. (For the exact proportions see chapter on Staining Reagents.)

Under the influence of heat these solutions are seen to stain all bacteria very intensely—the tubercle bacilli as well as the ordinary forms. If we subject our preparation, which may contain a mixture of tubercle bacilli and other forms, to the action of decolorizing agents, another peculiarity of the tubercle bacillus will be observed. While all other organisms in the preparation will give up their color and become invisible, the tubercle bacillus retains it with marked tenacity. It stains with great difficulty, but once stained it retains the color even under the influence of strong decolorizing agents.

ORGANISMS WITH WHICH THE BACILLUS TUBERCULOSIS MAY BE CONFUSED.

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS.—While this peculiar micro-chemical reaction is usually considered to be diagnostic of the bacillus tuberculosis, it is well to remember that there are at least three other species of bacilli which, when similarly treated, react in the same way. It is of importance to bear this point in mind,

particularly in the microscopic examination of urine and pathological secretions from the genito-urinary tract and from the rectum, for of the three species two are frequently found in these localities, viz., the so-called *smegma bacillus*, located in the smegma and often seen beneath the prepuce and upon the vulva, both normally and in disease, and the *bacillus of syphilis*, described by Lustgarten as contained in syphilitic manifestations, particularly in primary sores. The third organism of this group—the *bacillus of leprosy*—because of its rarity, is not so likely to cause error in diagnosis of troubles occurring in these localities.

According to Hueppe, the differential diagnosis between the four organisms depends upon the following reactions: When stained by the carbol-fuchsin method commonly employed in staining the tubercle bacillus the syphilis bacillus becomes almost instantly decolorized by treatment with mineral acids, particularly sulphuric acid, whereas the smegma bacillus resists such treatment for a much longer time, and the lepra and tubercle bacillus for a still longer time. On the other hand, if decolorization is practised with alcohol, instead of acids, the smegma bacillus is the first to lose its color. The bacillus tuberculosis and the bacillus of leprosy are conspicuously retentive of their color even after treatment with both acids and alcohol.

To differentiate, then, between the four organisms he recommends the following order of procedure, based on the above reactions:

1. Treat the stained preparation with sulphuric acid; the syphilis bacillus becomes decolorized, the reaction being almost instantaneous.

2. If it is not at once decolorized, treat with alcohol;

if it is the smegma bacillus this will rob it of its color.

3. If it is still not decolorized it is either the lepra or tubercle bacillus.

The differential diagnosis between the last two organisms is less satisfactory; they both take on the same stains and both retain them or give them up under treatment with the same decolorizers. The results of investigations, however, indicate differences in the *rate* of staining and decolorization, and it is accepted by many of those who have compared the two organisms that the lepra bacillus takes up staining very much more readily than does the tubercle bacillus, often staining perfectly by an exposure of only a few minutes to cold watery solutions of the dyes, but when once stained it retains its color much more tenaciously when acted upon by decolorizing agents than does the latter organism.

According to Baumgarten, the lepra bacillus is stained by an exposure of six to seven minutes to a cold, saturated watery solution of fuchsin, and retains the stain when subsequently treated with acid alcohol (nitric acid, 1 part; alcohol, 10 parts). By similar treatment for the same length of time the bacillus tuberculosis does not become stained.

These points, particularly what has been said with reference to the smegma bacillus and the bacillus of syphilis, are of much practical importance and should always be borne in mind in connection with microscopic examination of materials to which these organisms are liable to gain access. It is hardly necessary to say that in the examination of sputa and pathological fluids from other parts of the body the tubercle bacillus is, of the

four organisms, always the one most commonly encountered.

TUBERCULIN.—The filtered products of growth from old fluid cultures of the tubercle bacillus represent what is known as tuberculin—a group of proteid substances possessing most interesting properties. When injected subcutaneously into healthy subjects tuberculin has no effect, but when introduced into the body of the tuberculous person or animal a pronounced systemic reaction results, consisting of sudden but temporary elevation of temperature with, at the same time, the occurrence of marked hyperæmia round about the tuberculous focus, a change histologically analogous to that seen in the primary stages of acute inflammation. This zone of hyperæmia, with the coincident exudation and infiltration of cellular elements, probably aids in the isolation or casting off of the tuberculous nodule, the inflammatory zone forming, so to speak, a line of demarcation between the diseased and healthy tissue.

As a curative agent for the treatment of tuberculosis, tuberculin has not merited the confidence that was at first accorded to it. Its greatest field of usefulness is now admitted to be as an aid to the diagnosis of obscure cases, and more particularly those occurring in cattle, where it has proven itself to be of inestimable value in this particular application.

SUSCEPTIBILITY OF ANIMALS TO TUBERCULOSIS.—The animals which are known to be susceptible to the tubercular processes are man, apes, cattle, horses, sheep, guinea-pigs, pigeons, rabbits, cats, and field mice.

White mice, dogs, and rats possess immunity against the disease.

We have reviewed the three common pathogenic

organisms with which we may come in contact in the sputum of tuberculous individuals. Occasionally other forms may be present. The pyogenic forms are not rarely found, and for some time after diphtheria the bacillus of Löffler is demonstrable in the pharynx, so that it too may be present under exceptional circumstances. These latter organisms will be described under their proper heads.

CHAPTER XIX.

Glanders—Characteristics of the disease—Histological structure of the glanders nodule—Susceptibility of different animals to glanders—The bacillus of glanders; its morphological and cultural peculiarities—Diagnosis of glanders.

SYNONYMS: Rotz (Ger.), Morve (Fr.).

Though most commonly seen in the horse and ass, glanders is not rarely met with in other animals, and is occasionally encountered in man. When occurring spontaneously in the horse its primary seat is usually upon the mucous membrane of the nostrils. It appears in the form of small gray nodules, about which the membrane is congested and swollen. These nodules ultimately coalesce to form ulcers. There is a profuse slimy discharge from the nostrils during the course of the disease. It may extend from its primary seat in the nose to the mouth, larynx, trachea, and ultimately to the lungs. Its secondary manifestations are observed along the lymphatics that communicate with the primary focus, in the lymphatic glands, and as metastatic foci in the internal organs. Less frequently the disease is seen to begin in the skin, particularly in the region of the neck and breast. When in this locality the subcutaneous lymphatics become involved, and are converted into indurated, knotty cords, easily discernible from without.

When occurring in man it is usually in individuals who have been in attendance upon animals affected with the disease. It may occur upon the mucous membrane

originated. These particles always stain much more intensely than do the normal nuclei of the part.¹

These peculiar alterations, as Oertel has shown, in their distribution, are characteristic of human diphtheria, and the demonstration of similar changes in animals inoculated with this organism is important additional proof that diphtheria is caused by it.

An affection may be produced by the inoculation of certain animals that is in all respects identical with the disease diphtheria as it exists in man. If one opens the trachea of a kitten and rubs upon the mucous membrane a small portion of a pure culture of this organism, the death of the animal usually ensues in from two to four days. At autopsy the wound will be found covered with a grayish, adherent, necrotic, distinctly diphtheritic layer. Around the wound the subcutaneous tissues will be cedematous. The lymphatic glands at the angle of the jaws will be swollen and reddened. The mucous membrane of the trachea at the point upon which the bacilli were deposited will be covered with a tolerably firm, grayish-white, loosely attached pseudo-membrane in all respects identical with the croupous membrane observed in the same situation in cases of human diphtheria. In the pseudo-membrane and in the cedematous fluid about the skin-wound, *bacilli diphtheriæ* may be found both in cover-slips and in cultures.

From what we have seen—the localization of the bacilli at the point of inoculation, their absence from the internal organs, and the changes brought about in the cellular elements of the internal organs—there is but one inter-

¹ See "The Histological Changes in Experimental Diphtheria," also "The Histological Lesions produced by the Toxalbumin of Diphtheria," by Welch and Flexner. Johns Hopkins Hospital Bulletin, August, 1891, and March, 1892.

pretation for this process, viz.: that it is due to the production of a soluble poison by the bacteria growing at the seat of inoculation, which, gaining access to the circulation, produces the changes that we observe in the tissues of the internal viscera.

This poison has been isolated from cultures of the *bacillus diphtheriæ*, and is found to belong, not to the crystallizable ptomaines, but to the toxic albumins—bodies which, in their chemical composition, are analogous to the poison of certain venomous serpents. By the introduction of this *toxalbumin*, as it is called, into the tissues of guinea-pigs and rabbits, the same pathological alterations may be produced that we have seen to follow the result of inoculation with the bacilli themselves, except, perhaps, the production of false membrane.

Under certain circumstances with which we are not acquainted the *bacillus diphtheriæ* becomes diminished in virulence or may lose it entirely, so that it is no longer capable of producing death of susceptible animals, but may cause only a transient local reaction from which the animal entirely recovers. Sometimes this reaction is so slight as to be overlooked, and again careful search may fail to reveal evidence of any reaction at all. The production of the extremes of its pathogenic properties, viz., death of the animal, on the one hand, and only very slight local effects on the other, were at one time thought to indicate the existence of two separate and distinct organisms that were alike in cultural and morphological peculiarities, but which differed in their disease-producing power. Further studies on this point have, however, shown that the genuine *bacillus diphtheriæ* may possess almost all grades in the degree

of its virulence, and that absence of or diminution in virulence can hardly serve to distinguish as separate species these varieties that are otherwise alike; moreover, the histological conditions found at the site of inoculation in animals that have not succumbed, but in which only the local reaction has appeared, are in most cases characterized by the same changes that are seen at autopsy in animals in which the inoculation has proven fatal.

In the course of their observations upon a large number of cases, Roux and Yersin found that it was not difficult to detect in the diphtheritic deposits of one and the same individual bacilli of identical cultural and morphological peculiarities, but of very different degrees of virulence, and that with the progress of the disease toward recovery the less virulent varieties often became quite frequent.¹

There is, moreover, a mild form of diphtheria affecting only the mucous membrane of the nares, known as membranous rhinitis, from which it is very common to obtain cultures in all respects identical with those from typical diphtheria, save for their power to *kill* susceptible animals. On inoculation these cultures produce only local reactions, but these are characterized histologically by the same tissue changes that follow inoculation with the fully virulent organism.

Clinically, membranous rhinitis is never such an alarming disease as is laryngeal or pharyngeal diphtheria, and, as stated, the organisms causing it are often of a low degree of virulence, though they are, nevertheless, genuine diphtheria bacilli.

¹ It must not be assumed from this that the bacilli lose their virulence entirely, or that they *all* become attenuated with the establishment of convalescence.

For those organisms that are in all respects identical with the virulent *bacillus diphtheriæ*, save for their inability to kill guinea-pigs, the designation "pseudo-diphtheritic bacillus" is usually employed, but from such observations as those just cited we are inclined to the opinion that *pseudo*-diphtheritic, as applied to an organism in all respects identical with the genuine bacillus, except that it is not *fatal* to susceptible animals, is a misnomer, and that it would be more nearly correct to designate this organism as the attenuated or non-virulent diphtheritic bacillus, reserving the term "pseudo-diphtheritic" for that organism or group of organisms (for there are probably several) that is enough like the diphtheria bacillus to attract attention, but is distinguishable from it by certain morphological and cultural peculiarities aside from the question of virulence.

It is a well-known fact that many pathogenic organisms—conspicuous among these being the micrococcus lanceolatus, the staphylococcus pyogenes aureus, and the group of so-called hemorrhagic septicæmia organisms—undergo marked variations in the degree of their pathogenic properties; and yet these organisms, when found either devoid of this peculiarity, or possessing it to a diminished degree, are not designated as "pseudo" forms of these organisms, but simply as the organisms themselves, the virulence of which, from various causes, has been modified.

NOTE.—Prepare cover-slip preparations from the mouth-cavity of healthy individuals and from those having decayed teeth. Do they correspond in any way with those made from diphtheria? Do the same with

different forms of sore-throat. Do the peculiarities of any of the organisms suggest those of the bacillus of diphtheria? Wherein is the difference?

In cultures and cover-slips made from both diphtheria and from innocent sore-throats are there any organisms which are almost constantly present? Which are they, and what are their characteristics?

Which are the predominating organisms in the anginas of scarlet fever?

Do these organisms simulate, in their cultural and morphological peculiarities, any of the different species with which you have been working?

CHAPTER XXI.

Typhoid fever—Study of the organism concerned in its production—The *bacterium coli commune*—Its resemblance to the bacillus of typhoid fever—Its morphological, cultural, and pathogenic properties—Its differentiation from the *bacillus typhi abdominalis*.

THE organism, discovered by Eberth and by Gaffky, generally recognized as the etiological factor in the production of typhoid fever, may be described as follows :

It is a bacillus about three times as long as it is broad, with rounded ends. It may appear at one time as very short ovals, at another time as long threads, and both forms may occur together. Its breadth remains tolerably constant. Its morphology presents little that will

FIG. 56.



Bacillus typhi abdominalis from culture twenty-four hours old, on agar-agar.

FIG. 57.



Bacillus typhi abdominalis showing flagella stained by Löffler's method.

aid in its identification (see Fig. 56). It stains a trifle less readily with the aniline dyes than do most of the other organisms. It is very actively motile, and when

stained by the special method of Löffler (see this method in chapter on Stainings) is seen to possess very delicate locomotive organs in the form of fine, hair-like flagella, which are given off in large numbers from all parts of its surface (see Fig. 57). These flagella are not seen in unstained preparations, nor are they rendered visible by the ordinary methods of staining.

In patients suffering from this disease it has been found during life in the blood, urine, and feces, and at autopsies in the tissues of the spleen, liver, kidneys, intestinal lymphatic glands, and intestines.

GELATIN PLATES.—Its growth, when seen in the depths of the medium, presents nothing characteristic, appearing simply as round or oval, finally granular points. On the surface it develops as very superficial, blue-white colonies, with irregular borders. They are a little denser at the centre than at the periphery. When magnified,

FIG. 58.



Colony of *bacillus typhi abdominalis* on gelatin.

the colonies present wrinkles or folds, which give to them, in miniature, the appearance seen in the relief maps made to represent mountainous districts. These colonies have sometimes the appearance of flattened pellicles of glass-wool, and usually present more or less of a pearl-like lustre.

ON AGAR-AGAR the colonies present nothing typical.

STAB CULTURES.—In stab cultures the growth is mostly on the surface, there being only a very limited development down the track made by the needle. The surface growth has the same appearance in general as that given for the colonies.

POTATO.—The growth on potato is usually described as luxuriant but invisible, making its presence evident only by the production of a slight increase of moisture at the inoculated point, and by a limited resistance offered to the needle when scraped across the track of growth. While this is true in most cases, yet it cannot be considered as constant, for at times this organism is seen to develop more or less visibly on potato.

POTATO GELATIN.—The growth is similar to that upon ordinary nutrient gelatin.

MILK.—It does not cause coagulation when grown in sterilized milk.

It does not liquefy gelatin.

It grows both with and without oxygen.

It does not produce indol.

In bouillon it causes a uniform clouding of the medium and brings about a slightly acid reaction.

It does not grow rapidly.

It does not produce fermentation, and on lactose-litmus-agar grows as pale-blue colonies, causing no reddening of the surrounding medium. In the fermentation tube, in glucose or lactose bouillon, no evolution of gas as a result of fermentation occurs.

It does not form spores. The irregularities of staining so commonly seen in this organism have in some instances led to the belief that the pale, unstained portions of the bacilli indicate the presence of spores.

More reliable tests, however, have demonstrated the error of this opinion.

It grows at any temperature between 20° C. and 38° C., though more favorably at the latter point.

It is very sensitive to high temperatures, being killed by an exposure of ten minutes to 60° C., and in a much shorter time to slightly higher temperatures.

Owing to a tendency toward retraction of its protoplasm from the cell envelope and the consequent production of vacuoles in the bacilli, the staining of this organism is usually more or less irregular. At some points in a single cell marked differences in the intensity of the staining will be seen, and here and there areas quite free from color can commonly be detected. These colorless portions are often so cleanly cut in outline as to look as if they had been punched out with a sharp instrument. (Diagrammatically represented in Fig. 59.)

FIG. 59.



Diagrammatic representation of retraction of protoplasm, with production of pale points, in the *bacillus typhi abdominis*.

PRESENCE IN TISSUES.—It is not easy to demonstrate this organism in tissues unless it is present in large numbers. The manipulations to which the sections are subjected in being mounted often rob the bacilli of their staining, and render them invisible, or nearly so. If, however, sections be stained in the carbolic-fuchsin solution, either at the ordinary temperature of the room or at a higher temperature (40° to 45° C.), then washed

out in absolute alcohol, and cleared up in xylol and mounted in balsam, the bacilli (particularly if the tissue is the liver or spleen) can readily be detected massed together in their characteristic clumps. If used in the same way, the alkaline methylene-blue solution gives also very satisfactory results.

In searching for the typhoid bacilli in tissues, their mode of growth under these circumstances must always be borne in mind, otherwise much labor will be expended in vain. In tissues the typhoid bacilli do not lie scattered about in the same way as do the organisms in tissues from cases of septicæmia; they are not regularly distributed along the course of the capillaries, but are localized in small clumps through the tissues, and it is for these clumps, which are easily detected under the low-power objective, that one should search. When the section is prepared for examination, if it be gone over with the low-power objective, one will notice at irregular intervals little masses that look in every respect like particles of staining-matter which have been precipitated upon the section at that point. When these little masses are examined with a higher power objective they will be found to consist of small ovals or short rods so closely packed together that the individuals composing the clump can often be seen only at the very periphery of the mass. This is the characteristic appearance of the typhoid organism in tissues. The little masses are usually in the neighborhood of a capillary.

RESULT OF INOCULATION INTO LOWER ANIMALS.—A great many experiments have been made with the view of reproducing the pathological conditions of this disease, as seen in man, in the tissues of lower animals, but with limited success. Fatal results without the

appearance of the typical pathological changes have frequently followed these attempts, but in most cases they could easily be traced to the toxic,¹ rather than to the truly infective² action of the materials introduced into the animals.

The most successful efforts for the production of the typical typhoid lesions in lower animals are those reported by Cygnæus. By the introduction of the typhoid bacilli into the tissues of dogs, rabbits, and mice he was able to produce in the small intestines conditions that were histologically and to the naked eye analogous to those found in the human subject.

Of a number of experiments made by the writer with the same object in view, only one positive result followed the introduction of typhoid bacilli into the circulation of rabbits. In this case the ulcer in the ileum was macroscopically and microscopically identical with those found at autopsy in the small intestine of the human subject dead of this disease. The typhoid bacilli were not only obtained from the spleen of the animal by culture methods, but were also demonstrated microscopically in their characteristic clumps in sections of the organ.

In connection with the inoculation of animals with the *bacillus typhi abdominalis*, observations of a most important nature have recently been made upon the artificial induction of susceptibility to its pathogenic action by Sanarelli.³ He found that rabbits, guinea-pigs, and mice could be rendered susceptible to in-

¹ Toxic—Poisonous results not necessarily accompanied by the growth of organisms throughout the tissues.

² Infective or septic—Poisoning of the tissues as a result of the growth of bacteria in them.

³ Sanarelli: *Annales de l'Institut Pasteur*, 1892, tome vi.

fection by this organism by injecting into them the products of growth of certain saprophytes—*proteus vulgaris*, *bacillus prodigiosus*, and *bacterium coli commune*—and that by whatever means the animal was subsequently inoculated with fresh cultures of the typhoid bacillus, either into the circulation or into the peritoneal cavity, death resulted in from twelve to forty-eight hours, with the most conspicuous pathological alterations in the digestive tract, and particularly in the small intestines. In these cases the infection is general and the organisms may be recovered from the blood and internal organs. It is the opinion of Sanarelli that the toxic conditions produced by the preliminary injections of the products of growth of the saprophytic organisms may be considered as analogous to a similar condition that may occur in man from the absorption of abnormal products of fermentation from the intestinal canal—an auto-intoxication that so reduces the resistance of the individual as to render him susceptible to infection by the bacillus of typhoid fever, should it gain access to his alimentary tract.

More recently it was found by Alessi¹ that rats, guinea-pigs, and rabbits, when permitted to breathe the gaseous products of decomposition from the contents of a cesspool, or from other decomposing matters, gradually became susceptible to infection by the typhoid bacillus. After an exposure of from five to seventy-two days in the case of rats, seven to fifty-eight days in the case of guinea-pigs, and three to eighteen days in the case of rabbits, the resistance of the animals was so diminished that inoculation with relatively small

¹ Alessi: Centralblatt für Bakteriologie u. Parasitenkunde, 1894, Bd. xv., No. 7, p. 228.

amounts of cultures of the typhoid bacillus proved fatal in from twelve to thirty-six hours. Autopsies upon these animals revealed the presence of hemorrhagic enteritis, hypertrophy of Peyer's patches, and enlargement of the spleen. The bacilli were found in the blood, liver, and spleen.

The importance of these observations in their bearing upon the etiology of typhoid fever, if they are demonstrated by subsequent experiment to be trustworthy, is too obvious to necessitate emphasis, and it is greatly to be desired that they may not be permitted to pass unnoticed, but that others interested may find occasion to institute experiments in the same direction with the hope that some light may be shed upon the mooted question concerning the influence of gaseous products of decomposition upon the health of individuals, and particularly upon the part played by them in diminishing natural resistance to infection.

Because of the variations in the morphology and cultural peculiarities of this organism, and because of the difficulty experienced in efforts to reproduce in lower animals the conditions found in the human subject, typhoid fever is bacteriologically one of the most unsatisfactory of the infectious diseases.

There are a number of other organisms which botanically appear to be so closely related to the typhoid bacillus, and which, with our present methods for studying them, so closely simulate it that the difficulty of identifying this organism sometimes is very great. In addition to this, the variability constantly seen in pure cultures of the typhoid bacillus itself in no way renders the task more simple.

For example, the morphology of the typhoid bacillus

is conspicuously inconstant; its growth on potato, which is usually given as characteristic, may, with the same culture, at one time appear as the typical invisible development, at another time it may grow in a way easily to be seen with the naked eye; and the change of reaction which it is said to produce in bouillon is sometimes much more intense than at others.

The only properties possessed by it that may be said to be constant are its motility, its inability to cause fermentation of glucose, lactose, and saccharose, its incapacity for coagulating milk, the absence of indol-production, and its growth on gelatin plates; but there are other organisms which approach these same characteristics to a degree that renders their differentiation from the typhoid organism often a matter that requires the careful application of all these differential tests.

These points should be borne in mind in the examination of drinking-water supposed to be contaminated by typhoid dejections, for the organisms which most nearly approach the typhoid bacillus in growth and morphology are just those organisms which would appear in water contaminated from cesspools, *i. e.*, the organisms constantly found in the normal intestinal tract. Even in the stools of typhoid-fever patients the presence of these normal inhabitants of the intestinal tract renders the isolation of the typhoid organisms somewhat troublesome.

The spleen of a patient dead of typhoid fever is the safest place from which to obtain cultures of this organism for study. But it must always be remembered that the same channels through which the typhoid bacillus gains access to this viscus are likewise open to other organisms present in the intestines, and for this reason

the *bacterium coli commune*, a normal inhabitant of the colon, may also be found in this locality.

NOTE.—Obtain a pure culture of typhoid bacilli, and from this make inoculations upon a series of potatoes of different age and from different sources. Do they all grow alike?

Before sterilizing, render another lot of potatoes slightly acid with a few drops of very dilute acetic acid; render others very slightly alkaline with dilute caustic soda. Do any differences in the growth result?

Make a series of twelve tubes of peptone solution to which rosolic acid has been added. Inoculate them all with as near the same amount of material as possible (one loopful from a bouillon culture into each tube); place them all in the incubator. Is the color-change, as compared with the control tube, the same in all cases?

Compare the morphology of cultures of the same age on gelatin, agar-agar, and potato.

Select a culture in which the vacuolations are quite marked. Examine this culture unstained. Do the organisms look as if they contained spores? How would you demonstrate that the vacuolations are not spores?

Obtain from the normal feces a pure culture of the commonest organism present. Write a full description of it. Now make parallel cultures of this organism and of the typhoid organism on all the different media. How do they differ? In what respects are they similar?

BACTERIUM COLI COMMUNE (colon bacillus; *bacillus Neapolitanus* of Emmerich).—This organism was found by Escherich, in 1885, in the intestinal discharges of milk-fed infants. It has since been demonstrated to

be a normal inhabitant of the intestines of man and of certain domestic animals (cattle, hogs, dogs).

For a time after its discovery it was considered of but little importance and attracted attention only because of its resemblance, in certain respects, to the bacillus of typhoid fever, with which it was occasionally confounded. In this particular it is still a subject for study, and some have even gone so far as to regard them as modifications of the same species, though in the present state of our knowledge this is certainly overstepping the mark. That they possess in common certain general points of resemblance and often approach one another in some of their biological peculiarities is true; but, as we shall learn, they each possess peculiarities which, when taken together, render their differentiation from one another a matter of but little difficulty.

With the wider application of bacteriological methods to the study of pathological processes it was occasionally observed that, under favorable circumstances, this organism was disseminated from its normal habitat and appeared in remote organs, often associated with diseased conditions. This was also, at first, considered of but trifling moment, and its presence in these localities was usually explained as accidental. Its repeated appearance, however, in different parts of the body outside of the intestines and the frequency of its association with pathological conditions ultimately attracted attention to it, and in consequence during the past two or three years a great deal has been written concerning the possible pathogenic nature of this organism.

The fact that it is always with us in most intimate association with certain of our life processes, together with the fact that it is known to appear in organs other

than that in which it is normally located, and that its occurrence in diseased conditions is not rare, justifies the opinion that it is one of the most important of the micro-organisms with which we have to deal.

While not generally considered to be a pathogenic organism, there is, nevertheless, sufficient evidence to warrant the statement that, under favorable conditions, with which we are not entirely familiar, this organism may assume pathogenic properties and that its presence in diseased conditions is not always to be considered as accidental, though this is frequently the case.

The morphological and cultural peculiarities of the *bacterium coli commune* are as follows :

Morphology. In shape it is a rod with rounded ends, sometimes so short as to appear almost spherical, while again it is seen as very much longer threads. Often both forms will be associated in the same culture. It may occur as single cells or as pairs, joined end-to-end. There is nothing to be said of its morphology that can aid in its identification, for in this respect it simulates many other organisms. It is usually said to be motile, and undoubtedly is motile in the majority of cases, but its movements are so sluggish that a positive opinion is often difficult.

By Löffler's method of staining, flagella can be demonstrated, though not in such numbers as are seen to occur on the typhoid fever bacillus.

It does not form spores.

It grows both with and without oxygen.

On gelatin. When on the surface its colonies appear as small, dry, irregular, flat, blue-white points that are commonly somewhat dentated at the margin. They are a trifle denser at the centre than at the periphery,

and are often marked at or near the middle by an oval or round nucleus-like mass—the original colony from which the layer on the surface developed. When located in the depths of the gelatin, and examined with a low-power lens, they are at first seen to be finely granular and of a very pale greenish-yellow color; later they become denser, darker, and much more markedly granular. In shape they are round, oval, and lozenge-like. When the surface colonies are viewed under a low power of the microscope they present essentially the same appearance as that given for the bacillus of typhoid fever, viz.: they resemble flattened pellicles of glass-wall, or patches of finely ground colorless glass. Colonies of this organism on gelatin are frequently encountered that cannot be distinguished from those resulting from the growth of the bacillus of typhoid fever.

In stab and smear cultures on gelatin the surface growth is flat, dry, and blue-white or pearl color. Limited growth occurs along the track of the needle in the depths of the gelatin. As the culture becomes older the gelatin round about the surface growth may gradually lose its transparency and become cloudy, often quite opaque. In still older cultures small roots, or branch-like projections from the surface growth into the gelatin are sometimes seen to occur.

It does not cause liquefaction of gelatin.

Its growth on nutrient agar-agar and on blood-serum is luxuriant but not characteristic.

In bouillon it causes diffuse clouding with sedimentation. In some bouillon cultures an attempt at pellicle formation on the surface may be seen, but this is not always the case. In old bouillon cultures the

reaction is seen to have become alkaline, and a decided ecalf odor may be detected.

It produces indol in bouillon and in peptone solution.

Its growth on potato is rapid and voluminous, appearing after twenty-four to thirty-six hours in the incubator as a more or less lobulated layer of a drab, dark-cream, or brownish-yellow color.

In neutral milk containing a little litmus tincture the blue color is changed to red after from eighteen to twenty-four hours in the incubator, and in addition the majority of cultures cause a firm coagulation of the casein in about thirty-six hours, though frequently this takes longer. *Very rarely*, the litmus may indicate the production of acid and no coagulation occur.

In media containing glucose it grows rapidly and causes active fermentation with liberation of carbonic acid and hydrogen. If cultivated in solid media to which glucose (2 per cent.) has been added, the gas-formation is recognized by the appearance of numerous bubbles along and about the track of the growth. If cultivated in fluid media, also containing glucose, in the fermentation tube, evidence of fermentation is given by the collection of gas in the closed arm of the tube.

On lactose-litmus-agar its colonies are pink and the color of the surrounding medium is changed from blue to red.

In Dunham's peptone solution it produces indol in from forty-eight to seventy-two hours.

It stains with the ordinary aniline dyes. It is decolorized when treated with iodine after having been stained by the method of Gram.

By comparing what has been said of the *bacillus typhi abdominalis* and of the *bacterium coli commune* it will

be seen that while they simulate each other in certain respects they still possess individual characteristics by which they may readily be differentiated. The most important of the differential points are :

1. Motility of the *bacillus typhi abdominalis* is much more conspicuous, as a rule, than is that of the *bacterium coli commune*.

2. On gelatin the colonies of the typhoid bacillus develop more slowly than do those of the colon bacillus.

3. On potato the growth of the typhoid bacillus is usually invisible (though not always), while that of the colon bacillus is rapid, luxuriant and always visible.

4. The typhoid bacillus does not cause coagulation of milk with acid reaction. The colon bacillus does this in from thirty-six to forty-eight hours in the incubator.

5. The typhoid bacillus never causes fermentation, with liberation of gas, in media containing glucose, lactose, or saccharose. The colon bacillus is conspicuous for its power of causing fermentation in such solutions.

6. In nutrient agar-agar or gelatin containing lactose and litmus tincture, and of a slightly alkaline reaction, the color of the colonies of typhoid bacillus is blue, and there is no reddening of the surrounding medium, while the colonies of the colon bacillus are pink and the medium round about them becomes red.

7. The typhoid bacillus does not possess the property of producing indol in solutions of peptone; the growth of the colon bacillus in these solutions is accompanied by the production of indol in from forty-eight to seventy-two hours at 37° to 38° C.

Animal inoculations. As with the bacillus of typhoid

fever, the results of inoculation of animals with cultures of this organism cannot be safely predicted. According to the observations of Escherich, Emmerich, Weisser, and others, the results that do appear are in most instances to be attributed to the toxic rather than to the infective properties of the culture used.

When introduced into the subcutaneous tissues of mice it has no effect, while similar inoculations of guinea-pigs are sometimes (not always) followed by abscess formation at the point of injury, or by alterations very similar to those produced by intra-vascular inoculation, viz.: death in less than twenty-four hours, accompanied by redness of the peritoneum and marked hyperæmia and ecchymoses of the small intestine; together with swelling of Peyer's patches. The cæcum and colon may remain unchanged or present enlarged follicles. There may or may not be an accumulation of fluid in the abdominal cavity, but peritonitis is rarely present. The small intestines may contain bloody mucus.

Intra-venous inoculation of rabbits may be followed by similar changes with often the occurrence of diarrhœa before death, which may, in the acute cases, result in from three to forty hours. In another group of cases acute fatal intoxication does not result, and the animal lives for weeks or months, dying ultimately of what appears to be the effects of a slow or chronic form of infection. For a few hours after inoculation these animals present no marked symptoms; exceptionally somnolence and diarrhœa have been observed at this period, indicating acute intoxication from which the animal has recovered. The affection is unattended by fever. The most marked symptom is loss of weight.

This is usually progressive from the first or second day after inoculation, with slight fluctuations until death.

At autopsy the animal is found to be emaciated. The subcutaneous tissues and the muscles appear pale and dry. The serous cavities, particularly the pericardial, may contain some excess of serum. The viscera are anæmic. The spleen is small, thin, and pale. Exceptionally ulcers and ecchymoses are observed in the cæcum, but generally there are no lesions of the intestinal tract.

The most striking and constant lesions, those most characteristic of the affection, are in the bile and in the liver; the quantity of bile may not exceed the normal, but in other cases the gall-bladder may be abnormally distended with bile. The bile is nearly colorless or has a pale yellowish or brownish tint, with little or none of a greenish color. Its consistence is much less viscid than normal, being often thin and watery. It usually contains small, opaque, yellowish particles or clumps which can be seen floating in it, even through the walls of the gall-bladder. These clumps consist microscopically of bile-stained, apparently necrotic, epithelial cells; leucocytes in small numbers; amorphous masses of bile pigment, and bacteria often in zoöglæa-like clumps. Similar material is found in the larger bile-ducts.

The liver frequently contains opaque, whitish or yellowish-white spots and streaks of irregular size and shape, which give a peculiar mottling to the organ when present in large numbers. These areas may be numerous, or only one or two may be found. In size they range from minute points to areas of from 2 to 3 cm. in extent.

By microscopic examination they are found to represent places where the liver cells have undergone necrosis accompanied with emigration of leucocytes, and the cells about them are in a condition of fatty degeneration.

In sections of the liver, masses of the bacilli may be discovered in and about the necrotic foci just described.

At these autopsies the colon bacillus is not found generally distributed through the body, but is only to be detected in the bile, liver, and occasionally in the spleen.¹

¹ Consult paper by Blachstein on this subject. Johns Hopkins Hospital Bulletin, July, 1891.

CHAPTER XXII.

The spirillum (comma bacillus) of Asiatic cholera—Its morphological and cultural peculiarities—Pathogenic properties—The bacteriological diagnosis of Asiatic cholera.

AT the conference held in Berlin in 1884 for the purpose of discussing the cholera question, it was announced by Koch¹ that he had discovered in the intestinal evacuations of individuals suffering from Asiatic cholera a micro-organism that he believed to be the cause of the malady. The importance of this statement necessarily attracted widespread attention to the subject, and as one of the results there existed, for a short time following, some skepticism as to the accuracy of Koch's claim. These doubts arose as a result of a series of contributions from other observers who endeavored to prove that the organism found by Koch in cholera evacuations was one that is common to other localities, and not a specific accompaniment of this disease. It was not very long, however, before it was evident that the objections raised by the opponents of Koch were based upon untrustworthy observations, and that by reliable methods of investigation the organism to which he had called attention could be easily differentiated from either and all of those with which it was claimed to be identical.

This organism, known as the spirillum of Asiatic cholera and as Koch's "comma bacillus," because of its morphology, is identified by the following peculiarities :

¹ Verhandlungen der Konferenz zur Erörterung der Cholerafrage, 1884, Berlin.

THE MORPHOLOGICAL AND BIOLOGICAL PECULIARITIES
OF THE SPIRILLUM OF ASIATIC CHOLERA.

Morphology. It is a slightly curved rod of about from 0.8 to 2.0 μ in length and from one-sixth to one-third in thickness; that is to say, it is from about one-half to two-thirds the length of the tubercle bacillus, but is thicker and plumper. Its curve is usually not more marked than that of a comma, and, indeed, it is often almost straight; at times, though, the curve is much more pronounced, and may even describe a semicircle. Occasionally the curve may be double, one comma joining another, with their convexities pointing in opposite directions, so that a figure similar to the letter S is produced. In cultures, long spiral or undulating threads may often be seen. From these appearances this organism cannot be considered a bacillus, but rather an intermediate type between the bacilli and the spirilla. Koch thinks it not improbable that the short comma forms represent segments of a true spirillum, the normal form of the organism. (Fig. 60.)

FIG. 60.



Spirillum of Asiatic cholera. Impression cover-slip from a colony thirty-four hours old.

It does not form spores, and we have no reliable evidence that it possesses the property of entering at

any time a stage when its powers of resistance to detrimental agencies are increased.

It is a flagellated organism, but has only a single flagellum attached to one of its ends.

It is actively motile, especially in the comma stage, though the long spiral forms also possess this property.

Grouping. As found in the slimy flakes in the intestinal discharges from cholera patients, Koch likens its mode of grouping to that seen in a school of small fish when swimming up stream, *i. e.*, they all point in nearly the same direction and lie in irregularly parallel, linear groups that are formed by one comma being located behind the other without being attached to it.

FIG. 61.

B.



Involution forms of the spirillum of Asiatic cholera, as seen in old cultures.

On cover-slip preparations made from cultures in the ordinary way there is nothing characteristic about the grouping, but in impression cover-slips made from young cultures the short commas will nearly always be seen in small groups of three or four, lying together in such a way as to have their long axes nearly parallel to one another. (See Fig. 60.)

In old cultures in which development has ceased, it undergoes degenerative changes, and the characteristic

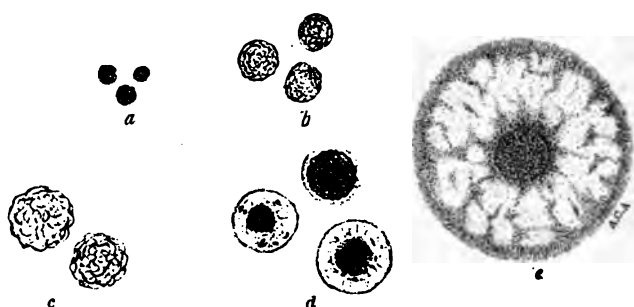
comma and spiral shapes may entirely disappear, their place being taken by irregular involution forms that present every variety of outline. (See Fig. 61.) In this stage they take on the staining very feebly, and often not at all.

Cultural peculiarities. On plates of nutrient gelatin that have been prepared from a pure culture of this organism and kept at a temperature of from 20° to 22° C., development can often be observed after as short a period as twelve hours, but frequently not before sixteen to eighteen hours. This is especially true of the first or "original" plate, containing the largest number of colonies. At this time the plate will present to the naked eye an appearance that has been likened to a ground-glass surface, or to a surface that has been stippled with a very finely pointed needle, or one upon which very fine dust has been sprinkled. This appearance is due to the presence of minute colonies closely packed together upon the surface of the gelatin. In the depth of the gelatin can also be seen, closely packed, small points, likewise representing growing colonies. As growth progresses liquefaction occurs around the superficial colonies, and in consequence this plate is usually entirely liquid after from twenty-four to thirty hours; the developmental phases through which the colonies pass cannot, therefore, be studied upon it.

On plates 2 and 3, where the colonies are more widely separated, they can be seen after twenty-four to thirty hours as small, round, or oval, white or cream-white points, and when located superficially there can be detected around them a narrow transparent zone of liquefaction. As growth continues, this liquefaction

extends downward rather than laterally, and the colony ultimately assumes the appearance of a dense, white mass lying at the bottom of a sharply-cut pit or funnel containing transparent fluid. This liquefaction is never very widespread nor rapid, and rarely extends for more than one millimetre beyond the colony proper. On plates containing few colonies there is but little or no tendency for them to become confluent, and, as a rule, they do not exceed 2 to 3 mm. as an average diameter.

FIG. 62.



Developmental stages of colonies of the spirillum of Asiatic cholera at 20° to 22° C. on gelatin. $\times$ about 75 diameters.

a. After sixteen to eighteen hours. b. After twenty-four to twenty-six hours. c. After thirty-eight to forty hours. d. After forty-eight to fifty hours. e. After sixty-four to seventy hours.

When examined under a low magnifying lens the very young colonies (sixteen to eighteen hours) appear as pale, translucent, granular globules of a very delicate greenish or yellowish-green color, sharply outlined and not perfectly round. (See a, Fig. 62.) As growth progresses, this homogeneous granular appearance is replaced by an irregular lobulation, and ultimately the sharply-cut margin of the colony becomes dentated or

scalloped. (See *b* and *c*, Fig. 62.) After forty-eight hours (and frequently sooner), liquefaction of the gelatin has taken place to such an extent that the appearance of the colony is entirely altered. Under the magnifying glass the colony proper is now seen to be torn and ragged about its edges, while here and there shreds of the colony can be detected scattered through the liquid into which it is sinking. These shreds evidently represent portions of the colony that have become detached from its margin as it gradually sank into the liquefied area.

At *d*, in Fig. 62, will be seen a representation of the several appearances afforded by the colonies at this stage. At the end of the second, or during the early part of the third day the sinking of the colonies into the liquefied pits, resulting from their growth, is about complete, and under a low lens they now appear as dense, granular masses, surrounded by an area of liquefaction through which can be seen granular prolongations of the colony, usually extending irregularly between the periphery and the central mass. (See *e*, Fig. 62.) If the periphery be examined, it will be seen to be fringed with delicate, cilia-like lines that radiate from it in much the same way that cilia radiate from the ends of certain columnar epithelial cells.

These are the more marked phases through which the colonies of this organism pass in their development on gelatin plates. With some cultures the various appearances here given appear more quickly, while in cultures from other sources they may be somewhat retarded.

On plates of nutrient agar-agar the appearance of the colonies is not characteristic. They appear as round or

oval patches of growth that are moist and tolerably transparent. The colonies on this medium at 37° C. naturally grow to a larger size than do those upon gelatin at 22° C.

In stab cultures in gelatin there appears at the top of the needle track after thirty-six to forty-eight hours

FIG. 63.



Stab cultures of the spirillum of Asiatic cholera in gelatin,
at 18° to 20° C.

a. After twenty-four hours. *b.* After forty-eight hours. *c.* After seventy-two hours. *d.* After ninety-six hours.

at 22° C. a small, funnel-shaped depression. As the growth progresses, liquefaction will be seen to occur about this point. In the centre of the depression be distinguished a small, dense, whitish clum

colony itself. As growth continues the depression increases in extent and ultimately assumes an appearance that consists in the apparent sinking of the liquefied portion in such a way as to leave a perceptible air-space between the top of the liquid and the surface of the solid gelatin. The growth now appears to be capped by a small air-bubble. The impression given by it at this stage is not only that there has been a liquefaction, but also a coincident evaporation of the fluid from the liquefied area and a constriction of the superficial opening of the funnel. (See *a, b, c, and d*, Fig. 63.) Liquefaction is not especially active along the deeper portions of the track made by the needle, though in stab cultures in gelatin the liquefaction is much more extensive than that usually seen around colonies on plates. It spreads laterally at the upper portion, and after about a week a large part of the gelatin in the tube may have become fluid, and the growth loses its characteristic appearance.

Stab- and smear-cultures on agar-agar present nothing characteristic. They are usually only an exaggeration of the appearance afforded by the single colonies on this medium.

Its growth in bouillon is luxuriant, causing a diffuse clouding and the ultimate production of a delicate film upon the surface.

In sterilized milk of a neutral or amphoteric reaction at a temperature of 36°–38°C. it develops actively, and gradually produces an acid reaction with coagulation of the casein. It retains its vitality under these conditions for about three weeks or more. The blue color of milk to which neutral litmus tincture has been added is changed to pink after thirty-six or forty-eight hours at body temperature.

Its growth in peptone solution, either that of Dunham (see Special Media) or the one preferred by Koch, viz., 2 parts Witte's peptone, 1 part sodium chloride, and 100 parts distilled water, is accompanied by the production of both indol and nitrites, so that after eight to twelve hours in the incubator at 37° C. the rose color characteristic of indol appears upon the addition of sulphuric acid alone. (See Indol Reaction.)

In peptone solution to which rosolic acid has been added the red color is very much intensified after four or five days at 37° C.

Its growth on potato of a slightly acid reaction is seen after three or four days at 37° C. as a dull, whitish, non-glistening patch at and about the site of inoculation. It is not elevated above the surface of the potato, and can only be distinctly seen when held to the light in a particular position. Growth on acid potato occurs, however, only at or near the body temperature, owing probably to the acid reaction, which is sufficient to prevent development at a lower temperature, but does not have this effect when the temperature is more favorable.

On solidified blood-serum the growth is usually said to be accompanied by slow liquefaction. I have not succeeded in obtaining this result on Löffler's serum, nor have I detected anything characteristic about its growth on this medium.

The temperature most favorable for its growth is between 35° and 38° C. It grows, but more slowly, at 17° C. Under 16° C. no growth is visible.

It is not destroyed by freezing. When exposed to 65° C. its vitality is destroyed in five minutes.

It is strictly aërobic, its development ceasing if the supply of oxygen is cut off.

It does not grow in an atmosphere of carbonic acid, but is not killed by a temporary exposure to this gas. It does not grow in acid media, but flourishes best in media of neutral or slightly alkaline reaction. It is so sensitive to the action of acids that, at 22° C., its development is arrested when an acid reaction equivalent to 0.066 to 0.08 per cent. hydrochloric or nitric acid is present (Kitasato).

In cultures, the development of this organism reaches its maximum relatively quickly, then remains stationary for a short period, after which degeneration begins. The dying comma bacilli become altered in appearance and assume the condition known as "involution forms." (See Fig. 61.) When in this state they take up coloring reagents very faintly or not at all, and may lose entirely their characteristic shape.

When present with other bacteria, under conditions favorable to growth, the comma bacillus at first grows much more rapidly than do the others; in twenty-four hours it will often so outnumber the other organisms present that microscopic examination would lead one to think that the material under consideration was a pure culture of this organism. This, however, does not last longer than two or three days; they then begin to die, and the other organisms gain the ascendancy. This fact has been taken advantage of by Schottelius¹ in the following method devised by him for the bacteriological examination of dejections from cholera patients:

In dejections that are not examined immediately

¹ Deutsche med. Wochenschrift, 1885, No. 14.

after being passed it is often difficult, because of the large number of other bacteria that may be present, to detect with certainty the cholera organism by microscopical examination. It is advantageous in these cases to mix the dejections with about double their volume of slightly alkaline beef tea, and allow them to stand for about twelve hours at a temperature of between 30° and 40° C. There appears at the end of this time, *especially upon the surface of the fluid*, a conspicuous increase in the number of comma bacilli, and cover-slip preparations made from the upper layers of the fluid will reveal an almost pure culture of this organism.

It is not improbable that a similar process occurs in the intestines of those suffering from Asiatic cholera, viz.: a rapid multiplication of the comma bacilli that have gained access to the intestines takes place, but lasts for only a short time, when the comma bacilli begin to disappear, and after a few days their place is taken by other organisms.

In connection with his experiments upon the poison produced by the cholera organism, Pfeiffer¹ states that in very young cultures, grown under the access of oxygen, there is present a poisonous body that possesses intense toxic properties. This primary cholera-poison stands in very close relation to the material composing the bodies of the bacteria themselves, and is probably an integral constituent of them, for the vitality of the cholera spirilla can be destroyed by means of chloroform and thymol, and by drying, without, apparently, any alteration of this poisonous body. Absolute alcohol, concentrated solutions of neutral

¹ Zeitschrift f. Hygiene u. Infectiouskrankheiten, Bd. xl, p. 393.

cells and a temperature of 10°C . diminishes the virulence, causing wound secondary poisoning which produces a similar pathological activity, but only when given in from 25 to twenty times the dose necessary to produce the same effect with the primary poison.

Other members of the genus *Enterobacter*, namely, the *Enterobacter Morganii* and that of *Franklin* and *Price* are virulent in these species, causing secondary poisoning in *Enterobacter* wound secondary poisoning.

Experiments upon animals. As a result of experiments for the purpose of determining if the disease can be produced in any of the lower animals, it is found that white mice, monkeys, cats, dogs, poultry, and many other animals are not susceptible to infection by the bacteria usually employed in inoculation experiments. When animals are fed on pure cultures of the bacteria culture no effect is produced, and the organisms cannot be obtained from the stomach or intestines; they are destroyed in the stomach and do not reach the intestines; they are not demonstrable in the feces of these animals. Intra-vascular injections of pure culture into rabbits are followed by a temporary illness, from which the animals usually recover in from two to three days; intra-peritoneal injections into white mice are, as a rule, followed by death in from twenty-four to forty-eight hours; the conditions in both instances most probably resulting from the toxic activities of the poisonous products of growth of the organism that are present in the culture employed. None of the lower animals have ever been known to suffer from cholera spontaneously.

The experiments of Nicati and Rietsch, in which the common bile duct was ligated, and fluid cultures of

EXPERIMENTS WITH CHOLERA SPIRILLUM. 325

the organism were injected directly through the walls of the duodenum, demonstrated the fact that the acid reaction of the gastric juice destroyed the cholera organisms and prevented their access to the small intestine when they had been administered by the mouth; at the same time it was seen that the interference with the flow of bile diminished intestinal peristalsis, and permitted the organisms to remain for a longer time where they had been deposited. By this method Nicati and Rietsch,¹ Van Ermengen,² Koch,³ and others were enabled to produce in the animals upon which they operated a condition that was, if not identical, at all events very similar pathologically to that seen in the intestine of subjects dead of the disease.

At a subsequent conference held in Berlin in 1885, Koch⁴ described the following method by means of which he had been able to obtain a relatively high degree of constancy in all his efforts to produce cholera in lower animals: Bearing in mind the point made by Nicati and Rietsch as to the effect produced by the acid reaction of the gastric juice, this reaction was first to be neutralized by injecting, through a soft catheter passed down the œsophagus into the stomach, 5 c.c. of a 5 per cent. solution of sodium carbonate. Ten or fifteen minutes later this was to be followed by the injection into the stomach (also through a soft catheter) of 10 c.c. of a bouillon culture of the cholera spirillum. For the purpose of arresting peristalsis and permitting the organisms to remain in the stomach and upper part of the

¹ *Archiv de Phys. norm. et path.*, 1885, xvii., 3e sér., t. vi. *Compt.-rend.*, xcix. p. 928. *Rev. de Hygiène*, 1885. *Rev. de Méd.*, 1885. v.

² "Recherches sur le Microbe du Choléra Asiatique," Paris-Bruxelles, 1885. *Bull. de l'Acad. roy. de Méd. de Belgique*, 3e sér., xviii.

³ *Loc. cit.*

⁴ *Loc. cit.*, 1885.

duodenum for as long a time as possible, the animal was to receive, immediately following the injection of the culture, an intra-peritoneal injection, by means of a hypodermatic syringe, of 1 c.c. of tincture of opium for each 200 grammes of its body weight. Shortly after this last injection a deep narcosis sets in and lasts from a half to one hour, after which the animal is again as lively as ever. Of 35 guinea-pigs inoculated in this way by Koch, 30 died of a condition that was, in general, very similar to that seen in Asiatic cholera.

The condition of these animals before death is described as follows: Twenty-four hours after the operation the animal appears sick; there is a loss of appetite, and the animal remains quiet in its cage. On the following day a paralytic condition of the hind extremities appears, which, as the day goes on, becomes more pronounced; the animal lies quite flat upon its abdomen or on its side, with its legs extended; respiration is weak and prolonged, and the pulsations of the heart are hardly perceptible; the head and extremities are cold, and the body temperature is frequently subnormal.

The animal usually dies after remaining in this condition for a few hours.

At autopsy the small intestine is found to be deeply injected and filled with a flocculent, colorless fluid. The stomach and intestines do not contain solid masses, but fluid; when diarrhoea does not occur, firm scybala may be expected in the rectum. Both by microscopic examination and by culture methods, comma bacilli are found to be present in the small intestine in practically pure culture.

More recently Pfeiffer¹ has determined that essentially

¹ Zeitschrift für Hygiene, Bd., xi. and xiv.

similar constitutional effects may be produced in guinea-pigs by the intra-peritoneal injection of relatively large numbers of this organism. His plan is to scrape from the surface of a fresh culture on agar-agar as much of the growth as can be held upon a moderate sized wire loop. This is then finely divided in 1 c.c. of bouillon and, by means of a hypodermatic syringe, is injected directly into the peritoneal cavity. When virulent cultures have been used this is quickly followed by a fall in the temperature of the animal; this is gradual and continuous until death ensues, which is usually in from eighteen to twenty-four hours after the operation, though exceptionally cases do occur in which the animal recovers, even after having exhibited marked symptoms of most profound toxæmia.

General considerations. In all cases of Asiatic cholera, and *only* in this disease, the organism just described can be detected in the intestinal evacuations. The more acute the case and the more promptly the examination is made after the evacuations have been passed from the patient, the less will be the difficulty experienced in detecting the organism.

In some cases it can be detected in the vomited matters, though by no means so constantly as in the intestinal contents.

As a rule, bacteriological examination fails to reveal the presence of the organisms in the blood and internal organs in this disease, though Nicati and Rietsch claim to have obtained them from the common bile-duct in rapidly fatal cases, and in two out of five cases they were present in the gall-bladder. Doyen and Rasstschewsky¹ found them in the liver in pure cultures,

¹ Reference to Vrach, 1885, in Allg. Med. Central. Zeitung, Berlin.

and Tizzoni and Cattani¹ in both the blood and the gall-bladder.

The cholera spirillum is a facultative parasite ; that is to say, it apparently finds in certain portions of the world, particularly in those countries in which Asiatic cholera is endemic, conditions that are not entirely unfavorable to its development outside of the body. This has been found to be the fact not only by Koch, who detected the presence of the organism in the water-tanks in India, but by many other observers who have succeeded in demonstrating its growth under conditions not embraced in the ordinary methods that are employed for the cultivation of bacteria.

The results of experiments having for their object the determination of the length of time during which this organism may retain its vitality in water are conspicuous for their irregularity. In the transactions of the congress in Berlin, for the discussion of the cholera question, it is stated, in connection with this point, that the experiments made with tank-water in India sometimes resulted in demonstrating the multiplication of the organisms introduced into it, while in other cases they died very quickly.

On February 8, 1884, comma bacilli were found in the tank at Saheb-Began, in Calcutta, and it was possible to demonstrate them in a living condition up to February 23d.

Koch states that in ordinary spring-water or well-water the organisms retained their vitality for thirty days, whereas in the canal-water (sewage) of Berlin they died after six or seven days ; but if this latter were mixed with fecal matters, the organisms retained their vitality

¹ Centralblatt f. die med. Wissenschaften, 1886, No. 43.

for but twenty-seven hours; and in the undiluted contents of cesspools it is impossible to demonstrate them after twelve hours. In the experiments of Nicati and Rietsch they retained their vitality in sterilized distilled water for twenty days; in Marseilles canal-water (sewage), for thirty-eight days; in sea-water, sixty-four days; in harbor-water, eighty-one days, and in bilge-water, thirty-two days.

In the experiments of Hochstetter, on the other hand, they died in distilled water in less than twenty-four hours in five of seven experiments; in one of the two remaining experiments they were alive after a day, and in the other after seven days.

In one experiment with the domestic water supply of Berlin the organism retained its vitality for 267 days; in another for 382 days, notwithstanding the fact that many other organisms were present at the same time. There is no single ground upon which these variations can be explained, for they depend apparently upon a number of factors which may act singly or together. For example, in general it may be said that the higher the temperature of the water in which these organisms are present, up to 20° C., the longer do they retain their vitality; the purer the water, that is, the poorer in organic matters, the more quickly do the organisms die, whereas the richer it is in organic matter the longer do they retain their vitality.

Still another point that must be considered in this connection is the antagonistic influences under which they find themselves when placed in water containing large numbers of organisms that are, so to speak, at home in water—the so-called normal water bacteria.

The effect of light upon growing bacteria must not be lost sight of, for it has been shown that a surprisingly large number of these organisms are robbed of their vitality by a relatively short exposure to the rays of the sun, and it is, therefore, not unlikely that the non-observance of this fact may be, in part at least, accountable for some of the discrepancies that appear in the results of these experiments.

In his studies upon the behavior of pathogenic and other micro-organisms in the soil, Carl Fraenkel¹ found that the cholera spirillum was not markedly susceptible to those deleterious influences that cause the death of a number of other pathogenic organisms. During the months of August, September, and October, cultures of the comma bacillus that had been buried in the ground at a depth of three metres retained their vitality; on the other hand, in other months, particularly from April to July, they lost their vitality when buried to the depth of only two metres. At a depth of one and a half metres vitality was not destroyed, and there was a regular development in cultures so placed.

As a result of experiments performed in the Imperial Health Bureau, at Berlin, it was found that the bodies of guinea-pigs that had died of cholera induced by Koch's method of inoculation contained no living cholera spirilla when exhumed after having been buried for nineteen days in wooden boxes, or for twelve days in zinc boxes. In a few that had been buried in moist earth, without having been encased in boxes, when exhumed after two or three months, the results of examinations for cholera spirilla were likewise negative.

¹ Zeitschrift f. Hygiene, Bd. II. p. 521.

Kitasato,¹ in his experiments with the cholera organism, found that when mixed with the intestinal evacuations of human beings under ordinary conditions they lost their vitality in from a day and a half to three days. If the evacuations were sterilized before the cultures were mixed with them, the organisms retained their vitality up to from twenty to twenty-five days. He was unable to come to any definite conclusion as to the cause of these phenomena.

It was demonstrated by Hesse² and by Celli³ that many substances commonly employed as food-stuffs offer a favorable nidus upon which the cholera organism may develop. In his experiments upon its behavior in milk, Kitasato⁴ found that at a temperature of 36° C. the cholera spirillum developed very rapidly during the first three or four hours, and outnumbered the other organisms commonly found in milk. They then diminished in number from hour to hour as the acidity of the milk increased, until finally their vitality was lost; at the same time the common saprophytic bacteria increased in number. Relatively the same process occurs at a lower temperature, from 22° to 25° C., but the process is slower, the maximum development of the cholera organism being reached at about the fifteenth hour, after which time they were overgrown by the ordinary saprophytes present.

From this it would seem that the vitality of the cholera spirillum in milk depends largely upon the reaction: the more quickly the milk becomes sour, the more quickly does the organism become inert,

¹ *Zeitschrift für Hygiene*, Bd. v. p. 487.

² *Ibid.*, Bd. v. p. 527.

³ *Bollettino della R. Accad. Med. di Roma*, 1888.

⁴ *Zeitschrift f. Hygiene*, Bd. v. p. 491.

while the longer the milk retains its neutral or only very slightly acid reaction, the longer do the cholera organisms that may be present in it retain their power of multiplication.

According to *Laser*,¹ the cholera organism retains its vitality in butter for about seven days; it is therefore possible for the disease to be contracted by the use of butter that has in any way been in contact with cholera material.

In regard to the antagonism between the cholera spirillum and other organisms with which it may come in contact, the experiments of *Kitasato*² led him to conclude that no organism has been found which, when growing in the same culture medium with it, possessed the power of depriving it of its vitality *within a short time*. On the other hand, the experiments showed that there were quite a number of other organisms the development of which was checked, and in some cases their vitality was completely destroyed, when growing in the same medium with the cholera spirillum.

From this it would appear that the disappearance of the cholera spirillum from mixed cultures and from the evacuations in so short a time as has been mentioned, is due more to unfavorable nutritive conditions than to the direct action of the other organisms present.

When completely dried, according to *Koch's* experiments, the cholera spirillum does not retain its vitality for longer than twenty-four hours, but by others its vitality is said to be destroyed by an absolute drying of

¹ *Zeitschrift für Hygiene*, Bd. x. p. 513.

² *Ibid.*, Bd. vi. p. 1.

three hours. In the moist condition, as in artificial cultures, vitality may be retained for many months, though repeated observations lead us to believe that, under these circumstances, the virulence is diminished. According to Kitasato,¹ they retain their vitality when smeared upon thin glass cover-slips and kept in the moist chamber for from 85 to 100 days, and for as long as 200 days when deposited upon bits of silk thread.

In the course of his studies upon the destiny of pathogenic micro-organisms in the dead body, Von Esmarch² found that, when the cadaver of a guinea-pig dead from the introduction of cholera organisms into the stomach, was immersed in water and decomposition allowed to set in, after eleven days, when decomposition was far advanced, it was impossible to find any living cholera spirilla by the ordinary plate methods.

A similar experiment resulted in their disappearance after five days. In another experiment, in which decomposition was allowed to go on without the animal being immersed in water, none could be detected after the fifth day.

Carl Fraenkel³ has shown that an atmosphere of carbonic acid is directly inhibitory to the development of the cholera spirillum, and Percy Frankland⁴ states that in an atmosphere of this gas it dies in about eight days. In an atmosphere of carbon monoxide its vitality is lost in nine days, and in general it may be said for it when under the influence of an atmosphere of nitrous oxide gas.

¹ *Zeitschrift für Hygiene*, Bd. v. p. 134.

² *Ibid.*, Bd. v. p. 332.

From what has been said we see that the spirillum of Asiatic cholera, while possessing the power of producing in human beings one of the most rapidly fatal forms of disease with which we are acquainted, is still one of the least resistant of the pathogenic organisms known to us. Under conditions most favorable to its growth its development is self-limited; it is conspicuously susceptible to acids, alkalies, other chemical disinfectants, and heat; but when partly dried upon clothing, food, or other objects, it may retain its vitality for a relatively long period of time, and it is more than probable that it is in this way that the disease is often carried from points in which it is epidemic or endemic into localities that are free from the disease.

THE DIAGNOSIS OF ASIATIC CHOLERA BY BACTERIOLOGICAL METHODS.

Because of the manifold channels that are open for the dissemination of this disease it is of the utmost importance that its true nature should be recognized as quickly as possible, for with every moment of delay in its recognition opportunities for its spread are multiplying. It is essential, therefore, when employing bacteriological means in making the diagnosis, to bear in mind those biological and morphological features of the organism that appear most quickly under artificial methods of cultivation, and which, at the same time may be considered as characteristic of it, viz., its peculiar morphology and grouping; the much greater rapidity of its growth over that of other bacteria with which it may be associated; the characteristic appearance of its colonies on gelatin-plates and of its growth in stab

cultures in gelatin; its property of producing indol and coincidently nitrites in from six to eight hours in peptone solution at 37° to 38° C.; and its power of causing the death of guinea-pigs in from sixteen to twenty-four hours when introduced into the peritoneal cavity, death being preceded by symptoms of extreme toxæmia, characterized by prostration and gradual and continuous fall in temperature of the animal's body.

In a publication recently made by Koch¹ he called attention to a plan of procedure that is employed in this work in the Institute for Infectious Diseases at Berlin. In this scheme the points that have been enumerated are taken into account, and by its employment the diagnosis can be established in the majority of cases of Asiatic cholera in from eighteen to twenty-two hours. In general the steps to be taken and points to be borne in mind are as follows. The material should be examined *as early as possible* after it has been passed.

I. *Microscopic examination.* From one of the small slimy particles that will be seen in the semi-fluid evacuations prepare a cover-slip preparation in the ordinary way and stain it. If, upon microscopic examination, *only* curved rods, or curved rods greatly in excess of all other forms, are present, the diagnosis of Asiatic cholera is *more than likely* correct; and particularly is this true if these organisms are arranged in irregular linear groups with the long axes of all the rods pointing in nearly the same direction, that is to say, somewhat as minnows arrange themselves when swimming in schools up stream. (Koch.)

In 1886 Weisser and Frank² expressed their opinion

¹ Zeitschrift für Hygiene, 1903, Bd. 3, p. 1.

² Id. 1, p. 1.

upon the value of microscopic examination in these cases in the following terms:

(a) In the majority of cases microscopic examination is sufficient for the detection of the presence of the comma bacillus in the intestinal evacuations of cholera patients.

(b) Even in the most acute cases, running a very rapid course, the comma bacillus can always be found in the evacuations.

(c) In general, the number of cholera spirilla present is greater the earlier death occurs; when death is postponed, and the disease continues for a longer period, their number is diminished.

(d) Should the patient not die of cholera, but from some other disease, such as typhoid fever, that may be engrafted upon it, the comma bacilli may disappear entirely from the intestines.

II. With another slimy flake prepare a set of gelatin plates. Place them at a temperature of from 20° to 22° C., and at sixteen, twenty-two, and thirty-six hours observe the appearance of the colonies. Usually at about twenty-two hours the colonies of this organism can easily be identified by one familiar with them.

III. With another slimy flake start a culture in a tube of peptone solution—either the solution of Dunham or, as Koch proposes, a solution of double the strength of that of Dunham (Witte's peptone is to be used, as it gives the best and most constant results). Place this at 37° to 38° C., and at the end of from six to eight hours prepare cover-slips from the *upper layers* (without shaking) and examine them microscopically. If comma bacilli are present and capable of multiplication they will be found in this locality in almost

pure culture. After doing this prepare a second peptone culture from the *upper layers*, also a set of gelatin plates, and with what remains make the test for indol by the addition of ten drops of concentrated sulphuric acid for each ten cubic centimetres of fluid contained in the tube. If comma bacilli are growing in the tube the rose color characteristic of the presence of indol should appear.

By following this plan "a bacteriologist who is familiar with the morphological and biological peculiarities of this organism should make a more than *probable* diagnosis at once by microscopic examination alone, and a *positive* diagnosis in from twenty to, at the most, twenty-four hours after beginning the examination." (Koch.)

There are certain doubtful cases in which the organisms are present in the intestinal canal in very small numbers, and microscopic examination is not, therefore, of so much assistance. In these cases plates of agar-agar, of gelatin, and cultures in the peptone solution should be made.

The plates of agar-agar should not be prepared in the usual way, but the agar-agar should be poured into Petri dishes and allowed to solidify, after which one of the slimy particles may be smeared over its surface. The comma bacillus, being markedly *aërobic*, develops very much more readily when its colonies are located upon the surface than when they are in the depths of the medium. A point to which Koch calls attention, in connection with this step in the manipulation, is the necessity of the surface of the agar-agar free from the squeezed from it when it solidifies, as

the water interferes with the development of the colonies as isolated points and causes them to become confluent. To obviate this he recommends that the agar-agar be poured into the plates and the water allowed to separate from the surface at the temperature of the incubator before they are used. It is wise, therefore, when one is liable to be called on for such work as this to keep a number of sterilized plates of agar-agar in the incubator ready for use, just as sterilized *tubes* of media are always ready and at hand. The advantage of using the agar plates is the higher temperature at which they can be kept, and consequently a more favorable condition for the development of the colonies. As soon as isolated colonies appear they should be examined microscopically for the presence of organisms having the morphology of the one for which we are seeking, and as soon as such is detected gelatin plates and cultures in peptone solution (for the indol reaction) should be made. The peptone cultures started from the original material should be examined microscopically from hour to hour after the sixth hour that they have been in the incubator. The material taken for examination should always come from *near the surface* of the fluid, and care should be taken not to shake the tube. As soon as comma bacilli are detected in anything like considerable numbers in the upper layers of the fluid agar-agar plates and fresh peptone cultures should be made from them. The colonies will develop on the agar-agar plates at 37° C. in from ten to twelve hours to a size sufficient for recognition by microscopic examination, and from this examination an opinion can usually be given. This opinion should always be controlled by cultures in the peptone solution made from each of

several single colonies, and finally the test for the presence or absence of indol in these cultures.

In all doubtful cases in which only a few curved bacilli are present, or in which irregularities in either the rate or mode of their development occurs, pure cultures should be obtained by the agar-plate method and the method of cultivation in peptone solution, as soon as possible, and their virulence tested upon animals. For this purpose cultures upon agar-agar from single colonies must be made. From the surface of one of such cultures a good sized wire-loopful should be scraped and this broken up in about one cubic centimetre of bouillon, and the suspension thus made injected by means of a hypodermatic syringe directly into the peritoneal cavity of a guinea-pig of about 350 to 400 grammes weight. For larger animals more material should be used. If the material injected is from a *fresh* culture of the cholera organism toxic symptoms at once begin to appear; these have their most pronounced expression in the lowering of temperature, and if one follows this decline in temperature from time to time with the thermometer it will be seen to be gradual and continuous from the time of injection to the death of the animal (Pfeiffer¹), which occurs in from eighteen to twenty-four hours after the operation.

In general, this is the procedure employed in the Institute for Infectious Diseases, at Berlin, under Koch's direction.

¹ Loc. cit.

CHAPTER XXIII.

Organisms of interest historically and otherwise, that have been confounded with the spirillum of Asiatic cholera—Their peculiarities and differential features—The *vibrio proteus*, or bacillus of Finkler and Prior—The *spirillum tyrogenum*, or cheese spirillum of Deneke—The spirillum of Miller—The *vibrio Metschnikovi*.

VIBRIO PROTEUS (FINKLER-PRIOR BACILLUS).

Finkler and Prior were the first to contest experimentally the significance of the presence of Koch's comma bacillus in Asiatic cholera, claiming to have found it in the dejections of individuals suffering from other maladies, particularly *cholera nostras*. The morphological and biological differences between the organism that Finkler and Prior had discovered and those of the comma bacillus described by Koch are, however, so pronounced as to warrant the opinion that the confusion had arisen through imperfect and untrustworthy methods of experimentation. At a somewhat later period Finkler and Prior retracted their claims of identity for the two organisms, and held that the bacterium with which they were dealing was peculiar to *cholera nostras*—an opinion which, in the light of subsequent work was also proved to be without foundation in fact.

The characteristics of *the spirillum of Finkler and Prior* are as follows :

MORPHOLOGY.—It is thicker and longer than the spirillum of Asiatic cholera ; it is often thicker at the

middle than at the poles; it forms, like the "comma bacillus," screw-like, twisted threads (Fig. 64).

It is supplied with a single flagellum at one of its ends, and is, therefore, motile.

It, like the comma bacillus, readily undergoes degenerative changes under conditions unfavorable to growth and presents the variety of shapes grouped under the head "involution forms." According to Buchner this is especially the case when the medium in which they are growing contains glucose (5 per cent.) or glycerin (2 per cent.).

FIG. 64.



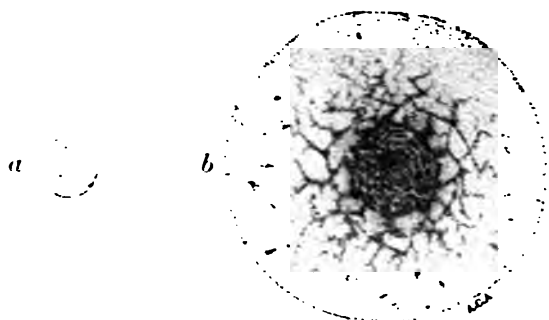
Vibrio proteus, Finkler-Prior bacillus, from culture on agar-agar twenty-four hours old.

CULTURAL PECULIARITIES.—On *gelatin plates* the development of its colonies is far more rapid, and liquefaction much more extensive, than in the case of the cholera spirillum. After twenty-two to twenty-four hours in this medium at 20° to 22° C. the average size of the colonies is about double that of the comma bacillus. The colonies are darker and denser and do not present under the low lens the same degree of granulation and subsequent lobulation, and they do not become serrated or scalloped around the margin as is the case with Koch's organism. After twenty-two to twenty-four hours they are usually nearly round, regularly granular, and more or less sharply defined. (See



Fig. 65, *a*.) At times they may show indefinite markings or creases, somewhat suggestive of lobulations. After forty-eight hours on gelatin they usually range from one to three millimetres (some even larger) in diameter, and will appear as sharply cut saucer-shaped pits of liquefaction, in the most dependent portion of which lies a dense, irregular mass, the colony proper. Under low magnifying power they present at this stage an appearance similar to that shown in Fig. 65, *b*, the

FIG. 65.

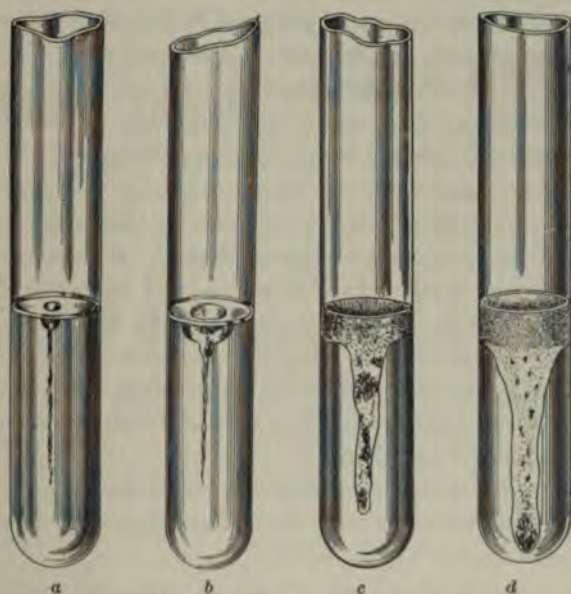


Colonies of the Finkler-Prior bacillus on gelatin. $\times$ about 75 diameters.
a. After twenty-two hours on gelatin at 20° to 22° C. *b*. After forty-eight hours on gelatin at 20° to 22° C.

central dense mass representing the colony and the irregular ragged lines surrounding it being shreds that have become torn away as it sank into the liquid caused by its growth. The zone surrounding it, extending to the periphery, is somewhat cloudy, and is simply liquefied gelatin. There is a marked tendency for the liquefaction to spread laterally and for the colonies to run together, so that, even on plates containing few colonies, in sixty to seventy-two hours at from 20° to 22° C., the entire gelatin is usually converted into a

yellowish-white fluid. Under these conditions its growth is accompanied by a marked aromatic odor impossible to describe; this is especially the case when the liquefaction is far advanced.

FIG. 66.



Stab culture of the Finkler-Prior bacillus in gelatin, at 18° to 20° C.
a. After twenty-four hours. b. After forty-eight hours. c. After seventy-two hours. d. After ninety-six hours.

In stab cultures in gelatin at the room temperature liquefaction is noticed about the upper part of the needle-track in twenty-four hours. This condition gradually increases, and at the end of two or three days the entire upper portion of the gelatin has become converted into a cloudy fluid — whereas at the lower part

of the canal the liquefaction progresses less rapidly but is still much more marked than that seen as a result of the growth of Koch's spirillum. Indeed, under these circumstances there is no similarity whatever between the growth of the two organisms (see *a, b, c, d*, Fig. 66, and compare these with corresponding cuts in Fig. 63).

It is customary to see, scattered through the cloudy liquefied gelatin, ragged, more or less dense masses, fragments of the colony proper.

On nutrient agar-agar there is nothing particularly characteristic about its growth, appearing only as a moist, grayish or yellowish-gray deposit.

On potato after forty-eight to seventy-two hours there appears a pale yellowish-gray deposit; this is moist, glazed, and marked by lobulations, and is surrounded by an irregular colorless zone of growth that is much less moist than that forming the central area. It grows well on potato at the ordinary temperature of the room.

It causes liquefaction of solidified blood-serum and of coagulated egg albumin.

In milk to which neutral litmus tincture has been added the blue color takes on a pink tinge in from two to three days at 37° to 38° C.

It does not form indol nor does it cause fermentation of glucose.

In peptone solution containing rosolic acid the color is somewhat deepened after four or five days at 37° C.

EXPERIMENTS UPON ANIMALS.—By ordinary methods of inoculation this organism is without pathogenic properties. Injections, subcutaneous and intra-vascular and directly into the stomach, give negative results. When introduced into the stomach of guinea-pigs by the method employed by Koch in his cholera experi-

ments, Finkler and Prior had 3 out of 10 animals, and Koch 5 out of 15 animals so treated to die.

The claim of Finkler and Prior that this organism was related etiologically to *cholera nostras* has been shown by subsequent work to have been unjustifiable.

In 1885, 1886, and 1887 Franck¹ examined seven cases that clinically presented the condition of *cholera nostras*; in none of these seven cases was the organism of Finkler and Prior, which they claimed to be the cause of the disease, found. In all cases the results of bacteriological examination, in so far as the constant presence of an organism that might stand in causal relation to the disease was concerned, were negative. Only the ordinary intestinal bacteria were found.

SPIRILLUM TYROGENUM (CHEESE SPIRILLUM OF DENEKE).

FIG. 67.



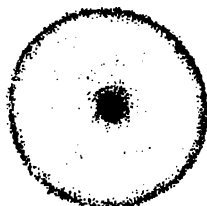
Deneke's cheese spirillum, *spirillum tyrogenum*. From agar culture twenty-four hours old.

Another spiral form, likewise forming short, comma-shaped segments in the course of its growth (Fig. 67), is that found by Deneke in old cheese. In morphology this organism is a little smaller than Koch's spirillum.

¹ Zeitschrift f. Hygiene, Bd. iv, p. 207.

It is motile and has but a single flagellum attached to one of its ends. It liquefies gelatin more rapidly than does Koch's organism. It possesses no characteristic grouping, as can be seen in impression cover-slips of its colonies. It does not form spores. On gelatin plates its colonies develop very rapidly as saucer-shaped depressions; after twenty-four hours they vary from 1 to 4 mm. in transverse diameter. To the naked eye they are almost transparent and are usually marked by a denser centre and peripheral zone, the space between being quite clear. They are not regularly round in all cases. A peculiar aromatic odor accompanies their growth on gelatin. Under a low magnifying power the smallest colonies are irregularly round in outline, their borders being often rough and broken, and the body of the colony is frequently marked by creases or ridges that give to it a lobulated appearance. The larger colonies under the same lens appear as

FIG. 68.



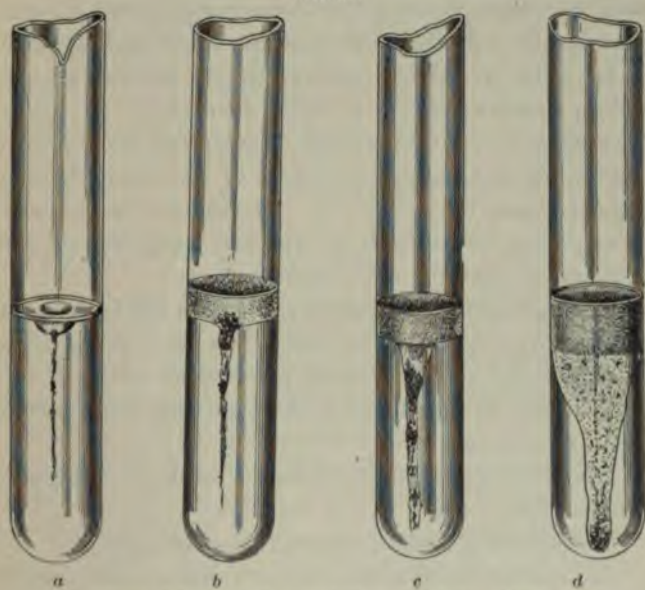
Colony of *Spirillum tyrogenum* on gelatin, twenty-four hours old.

granular patches, a little denser at the periphery and centre than at the intermediate portions. The periphery gradually fades away and no distinct circumference can be made out. (See Fig. 68.) The colonies of an intermediate size in which liquefaction is just beginning

to be apparent, show a dense granular centre, the colony itself, and about it a delicate, granular developmental zone.

In stab cultures in gelatin liquefaction is rapid, causing at the end of twenty-four hours a cup-shaped

FIG. 69.



Stab culture of Deneke's cheese spirillum in gelatin, at 18° to 20° C.

a. After twenty-four hours. *b.* After forty-eight hours. *c.* After seventy-two hours. *d.* After ninety-six hours.

depression at the top of the needle-track, the superficial area of which is about half that of the gelatin in the tube. (Fig. 69, *a.*) The liquefying process spreads laterally and at the end of forty-eight hours the whole upper portion of the gelatin may have become liquid. (Fig. 69, *b.*) The process continues along the

track of the needle and after seventy-two and ninety-six hours the appearances shown in Fig. 69, *c* and *d*, will be produced.

There is nothing particularly characteristic about its growth upon agar-agar.

On potato there appears a moist, glazed, yellowish, and, at points, brownish-yellow growth that is surrounded by a drier, colorless zone. It is not lobulated.

In milk containing neutral litmus tincture a pink color appears after two to three days at 37° C.; after four days the milk is almost decolorized and there is beginning to appear coagulation of the casein with a layer of clear whey above it. During the subsequent twenty-four hours there is complete separation of the contents of the tube into clot and whey.

In Dunham's peptone solution it does not form indol and the reaction for this body does not appear with either sulphuric acid alone or plus sodium nitrite.

It causes liquefaction of both coagulated blood-serum and egg albumin.

There is no pellicle formed as a result of its growth in bouillon.

It does not produce fermentation of glucose.

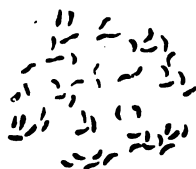
In rosolic-acid-peptone solution its growth causes the red color to become deepened after four or five days at 37° C.

By Koch's method of introducing cultures into the stomach of guinea-pigs this organism produced the death of three out of fifteen animals experimented upon—the deaths resulting, most probably, more from the toxic action of the products of growth that were introduced with the organisms than to any pathogenic powers possessed by the organism itself.

MILLER'S SPIRILLUM.

Another spirillum that has been likened to that of Koch is the one obtained by Miller from a carious tooth. It has so many characteristics in common with the organism of Finkler and Prior that Miller was inclined to consider them identical. In morphology they are indistinguishable. (See Fig. 70.) It grows

FIG. 70.



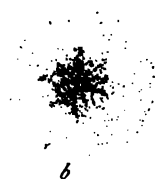
Spirillum of Miller. From agar culture twenty-four hours old.

rapidly, and, like the spirillum of Finkler and Prior, causes rapid liquefaction of gelatin with the coincident production of a peculiar aromatic odor.

The colonies on gelatin plates appear after twenty-four hours as small, transparent pits of liquefaction in the centre of which can be seen a minute white point, the colony itself. Under a low lens the largest of these points are uniformly granular and regularly round, and as a rule are surrounded by a peripheral zone that is a little darker than the central portion of the colony. The circumference is delicately fringed by short, cilia-like prolongations of growth which are not as a rule straight, but are twisted in all directions and can only be detected upon very careful examination. (See *a*, Fig. 71.) When located deep in the gelatin the colonies are round, sharply circumscribed, of a pale-yellowish or

greenish-yellow color, and marked by very delicate irregular lines or ridges. After forty-eight hours the plate containing many colonies is entirely liquefied, while that containing only a few shows the presence of round, sharply cut, shallow pits of liquefaction that measure from two to ten mm. in diameter. They are a little denser at the centre than at the periphery, and the dense centre is not sharply circumscribed but fades off into what has the appearance of a delicate film. (See *b*, Fig. 71.) As the colonies become older they

FIG. 71.



Colonies of Miller's spirillum on gelatin, at 20° to 22° C. $\times$ about fifty-seven diameters.

a. Colony just beneath the surface of the gelatin. *b*. Colony on the surface of the gelatin.

are sometimes marked by irregular radii extending from periphery to centre like the spokes of a wheel.

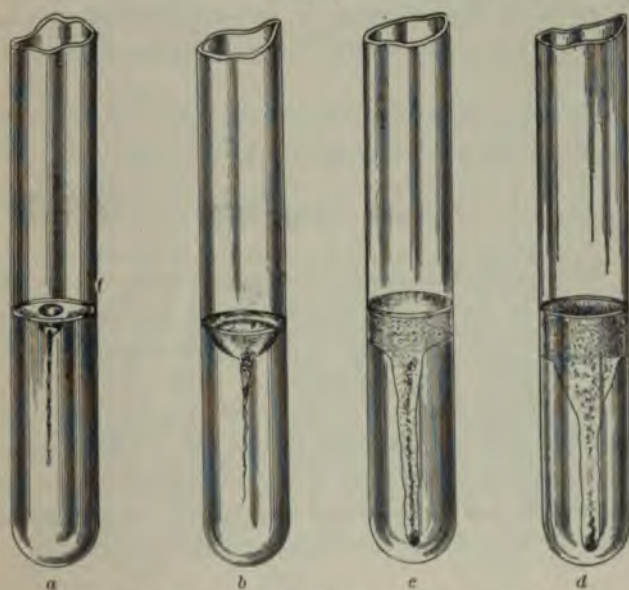
In stab cultures in gelatin it rapidly produces liquefaction, both at the surface and along the needle-track, and in most respects gives rise to a condition very like that resulting from the growth of Finkler and Prior's spirillum, though differing from it in certain details. (See *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, Fig. 72.)

On agar-agar nothing of special interest appears as a result of its development.

On potato its growth is very like that of the cholera spirillum, viz., it appears at 37° C. as a dry, white

patch that lies quite flat upon the surface and can often only be seen when the tube is held to the light in a special way.

FIG. 72.



Stab culture of Miller's spirillum in gelatin, at 18° to 20° C.

a. After twenty-four hours. b. After forty-eight hours. c. After seventy-two hours. d. After ninety-six hours.

Its growth in bouillon is not characteristic. It does not form a pellicle.

It causes liquefaction of both coagulated blood-serum and egg albumin.

It does not produce indol.

It does not cause fermentation of glucose.

It is non-motile.

In milk containing blue litmus tincture it causes

almost complete decolorization in from three to four days at 37° C., with coincident coagulation of the casein and the formation of a layer of clear whey above it.

It causes the red color of rosolic-acid-peptone solution to become somewhat intensified after four or five days at 37° C.

Of twenty-one animals treated with this organism by Koch's method of inoculation only four died.

VIBRIO METCHNIKOVII.

The spirillum that simulates very closely the comma bacillus of cholera in its morphological and cultural peculiarities, but which is still easily distinguished from it, is that described by Gamaleia under the name of *vibrio Metchnikovi*. It was found *post-mortem* in a number of fowls that had died in the poultry market of Odessa, and the experiments of the discoverer demonstrate that it is related etiologically to the gastro-enteritis with which the chickens had been suffering.

FIG. 73.



Vibrio Metchnikovi from agar culture, twenty-four hours old.

In morphology it is seen as short, curved rods and as longer, spiral-like filaments. It is usually thicker than Koch's spirillum and is at times *much* longer,

while again it is seen to be shorter. It is usually more distinctly curved than the "comma bacillus." (Fig. 73.)

It is supplied with a single flagellum at one of its extremities and is, therefore, motile.

It does not form spores.

It is aërobic.

Its growth upon gelatin plates is usually characterized, according to Pfeiffer, by the appearance of two kinds of liquefying colonies, one strikingly like those of the Finkler-Prior organism, the other very similar to those produced by Koch's comma bacillus, though in both cases the liquefaction resulting from the growth of this organism is more energetic than that common to the spirillum of Asiatic cholera. After from twenty-four to thirty hours the medium-sized colonies, when examined under a low power of the microscope, show a yellowish-brown, ragged central mass surrounded by a zone of liquefaction that is marked by a border of delicate radii. (Fig. 74.)

FIG. 74.

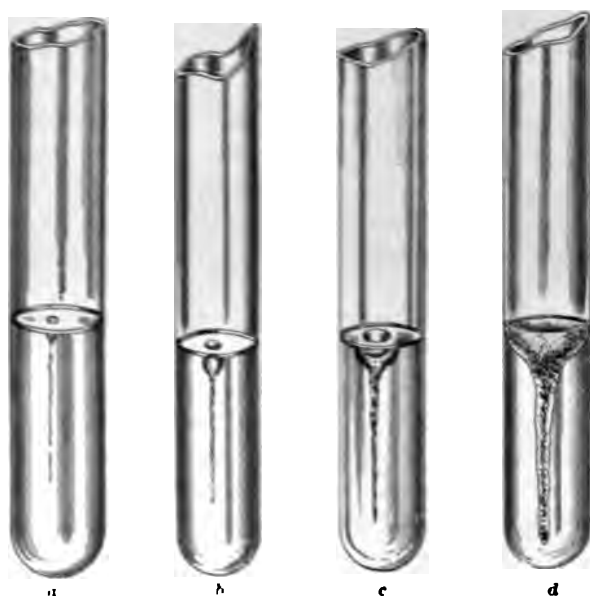


Colony of *Vibrio Metchnikovi* in gelatin after thirty hours at 20° to 22° C.
 X about 75 diameters.

In gelatin stab cultures the growth has much the same general appearance as that of the cholera spirillum, but is very much exaggerated in degree. The liquefaction is far more rapid and the characteristic appearance of the growth is lost in from three to four days (c, d, Fig. 75.) Development and liq

the deeper parts of the needle-track is much more pronounced than is the case with the "comma bacillus."

FIG. 73.



Stab culture of *Melchiorii* in gelatin, at 18° to 20° C.
a. After twenty-four hours. *b.* After forty-eight hours. *c.* After seventy-two hours. *d.* After ninety-six hours.

Its growth on agar-agar is rapid, and after twenty-four to forty-eight hours there appears a grayish deposit having a tendency to take on a yellowish tone.

On potato at 37° C. its growth is seen as a moist, coffee-colored patch surrounded by a much paler zone. The whole growth is so smooth and glistening that it has almost the appearance of being varnished.

In bouillon it quickly causes opacity, with the ulti-

mate production of a delicate pellicle upon the surface.

It causes liquefaction of blood-serum, the liquefied area being covered by a dense, wrinkled pellicle.

When grown in peptone solution it produces indol and coincidentally nitrites, so that the rose-colored reaction characteristic of indol is obtained by the addition of sulphuric acid alone. The production of indol by this organism is usually *greater* than that common to the comma bacillus under the same circumstances.

In milk it causes an acid reaction with coagulation of the casein. The coagulated casein collects at the bottom of the tube in irregular masses, above which is a layer of clear whey. If blue litmus has been added to the milk the color is changed to pink by the end of twenty-four to thirty hours, and after forty-eight hours decolorization and coagulation occurs. The clots of casein are not re-dissolved. After about a week the acidity of the milk is at its maximum, and the organisms quickly die.

It causes the red color of rosolic-acid-peptone solution to become very much deeper after four or five days at 37° C.

It does not cause fermentation of glucose with production of gas.

It is killed in five minutes by a temperature of 50° C. (Sternberg.)

It is pathogenic for chickens, pigeons, and guinea-pigs. Rabbits and mice are affected only by very large doses.

Chickens affected with the choleraic gastro-enteritis, of which this organism is the cause, are usually seen sitting quietly about with ruffled feathers. They are

afflicted with diarrhoea, but do not have any elevation of temperature. A hyperæmia of the entire gastro-intestinal tract is seen at autopsy. The internal organs do not, as a rule, present anything abnormal to the naked eye. The intestinal canal contains yellowish fluid with which blood may be mixed. In adult chickens the spirilla are not found in the blood, but in young ones they are usually present in small numbers. By subcutaneous inoculation pigeons succumb to the pathogenic activities of this organism in from eight to twelve hours. At autopsy pretty much the same condition is seen as was described for chickens, except that large numbers of the spirilla are usually present in the blood. Guinea-pigs usually die in from twenty to twenty-four hours after subcutaneous inoculation. At autopsy an extensive œdema of the subcutaneous tissues about the seat of the inoculation is seen, and there is usually a necrotic condition of the tissues in the vicinity of the point of puncture. As the blood and internal organs contain the vibrios in large numbers, the infection in these animals takes, therefore, the form of acute general septicæmia.

Gastro-enteritis may be produced in both chickens and guinea-pigs by feeding them with food in which cultures of this organism have been mixed.

NOTE.—More recently, particularly since the late epidemic in Hamburg, quite a number of curved or spiral organisms, somewhat like the cholera spirillum, have been discovered. For the descriptions of these the reader is referred to the current bacteriological literature.

CHAPTER XXIV.

Study of the *bacillus anthracis*, and the effects produced by its inoculation into animals—Peculiarities of the organism under varying conditions of surroundings.

THE discovery that the blood of animals suffering from splenic fever, or anthrax, always contained minute rod-shaped bodies (Pollender, 1855; Davaine, 1863), led to a closer study of this disease, and has resulted probably, in contributing more to our knowledge of bacteriology in general than work upon any of the other infectious maladies.

The outcome of these investigations is that a rod-shaped micro-organism, now known as the *bacillus anthracis*, is always present in the blood of animals suffering from this disease; that this organism can be obtained from the tissues of these animals in pure cultures, and that these artificial cultures of the *bacillus anthracis* when introduced into the body of susceptible animals can again produce a condition identical to that found in the animal from which they were obtained.

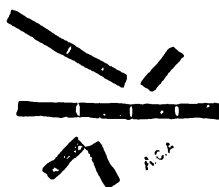
The disease is a true septicæmia, and the capillaries throughout the body after death will always be found to contain the typical rod-shaped organism in larger or smaller numbers.

This organism, when isolated in pure cultures, is seen to be a bacillus which varies considerably in its length, ranging from short rods of 2 to 3 μ in length to longer threads of 20 to 25 μ in length. In bread¹

from 1 to 1.25 μ . Frequently very long threads made up of several rods, joined end to end, are seen.

When obtained directly from the body of an animal, it is usually in the form of short rods *square at the ends*. If highly magnified the ends are seen to be a trifle thicker than the body of the cell and somewhat indented or concave, peculiarities that help to distinguish it from certain other organisms that are somewhat like it morphologically. (See Fig. 76.)

FIG. 76.



Bacillus anthracis highly magnified to show swellings and concavities at extremities of the single cells.

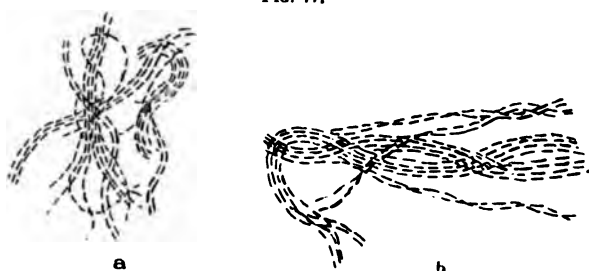
When cultivated artificially at the temperature of the body, the bacillus of anthrax presents a series of very interesting stages.

The short rods develop into long threads, which may be seen twisted or plaited together after the manner of ropes, each thread being marked by the points of juncture of the short rods composing it. (Fig. 77, a and b.)

In this condition it remains until alterations in its surroundings, the most conspicuous being diminution in its nutritive supply, favor the production of spores. When this stage begins, changes in the protoplasm of the bacilli may be noticed; they become marked by irregular, granular bodies, which eventually coalesce into glistening, oval spores, one of which lies in nearly

every segment of the long thread, and gives to the thread the appearance of a string of glistening beads. (Fig. 78.) In this stage they remain but a short time. The chains of spores, which are held together by the

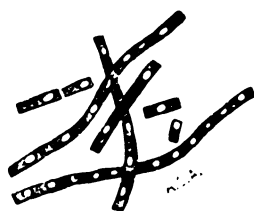
FIG. 77.



Bacillus anthracis. Plaited and twisted threads seen in fresh growing cultures. $\times$ about 400 diameters.

remains of the cells in which they formed, become broken up, and eventually nothing but free oval spores, and here and there the remains of mature bacilli which have undergone degenerative changes can be

FIG. 78.



Threads of *bacillus anthracis* containing spores. $\times$ about 1200 diameters.

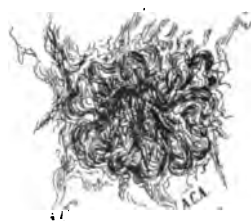
found. In this condition the spores, capable of resisting deleterious influences, remain and, unless their surroundings are altered, have been seen to continue in this living, though inactive, condition for a very long

time. If again placed under favorable conditions each spore will germinate into a mature cell, and the same series of changes will be repeated until the favorable surroundings become again gradually unfavorable to development, when spore-formation is again seen. Spore-formation takes place only at temperatures ranging from 18° to 43° C., 37.5° C. being the most favorable temperature. Under 12° C. they are not formed. With this organism spore-formation does not occur in the tissues of the living animal, its usual condition at this time being that of short rods. Occasionally, however, somewhat longer forms may be seen.

The bacillus of anthrax is not motile.

GROWTH ON AGAR-AGAR.—The colonies of this organism, as seen upon agar-agar, present a very typical appearance, from which they have been likened unto the head of Medusa. From a central point which is more or less dense, consisting of a felt-like mass of long threads matted irregularly together, the growth continues outward upon the surface of the agar. (Fig. 79.)

FIG. 79.



Colony of *bacillus anthracis* on agar-agar.

It is made up of wavy bundles in which the threads are seen to lie parallel side by side or are twisted in strands like those of a rope—sometimes they have a plaited

arrangement. (See Fig. 76.) These bundles twist about and cross in all directions, and eventually disappear at the periphery of the colony. At the extreme periphery of the colonies it is sometimes possible to trace single bundles of these threads for long distances across the surface of the agar-agar. The colony itself is not circumscribed in its appearance, but is more or less irregularly fringed or ragged, or scalloped. To the naked eye they look very much like minute pellicles of raw cotton that have been pressed into the surface of the agar-agar.

As the colonies continue to grow, they become more and more dense, opaque, and granular and rough on the surface. When touched with a sterilized needle, one experiences a sensation that suggests, somewhat, the matted structure of these colonies. The bit that may thus be taken from a colony is always more or less ragged.

GELATIN.—The colonies on gelatin at the earliest stages also present the same wavy appearance; but this characteristic soon becomes in part destroyed by the liquefaction of the gelatin which is produced by the growing organisms. This allows them to sink to the bottom of the fluid, where they lie as an irregular mass. Through the fluid portion of the gelatin may be seen small clumps of growing bacilli, which look very much like bits of cotton-wool.

BOUILLON.—In bouillon the growth is characterized by the formation of flaky masses, which also have very much the appearance of bits of raw cotton. Microscopic examination of one of these flakes reveals the twisted and plaited arrangement of the long threads.

POTATO.—It develops rapidly as a dull, dry, gran-

ular, whitish mass, which is more or less limited to the point of inoculation. On potato, at the temperature of the incubator, its spore-formation may easily be observed.

STAB AND SLANT CULTURES.—Stab and slant cultures on agar-agar present in general the appearances given for the colonies, except that the growth is much more extensive. The growth is always more pronounced on the surface than down the track of the needle.

On gelatin it causes liquefaction, which begins on the surface at the point inoculated, and spreads outward and downward.

It grows best with access to oxygen, and very poorly when the supply of oxygen is interfered with.

Under favorable conditions of aëration, nutrition, and temperature its growth is rapid.

Under 12° C. and above 45° C. no growth occurs. The temperature of the body is most favorable to its development.

The spores of the anthrax bacillus are very resistant to heat, though the degree of resistance is seen to vary with spores of different origin. Esmarch found that anthrax spores from some sources would readily be killed by an exposure of one minute to the temperature of steam, whereas those from other sources resisted this temperature for longer times, reaching in some cases as long as twelve minutes.

STAINING.—The anthrax bacilli stain readily with the ordinary aniline dyes. In tissues their presence may also be demonstrated by the ordinary aniline staining fluids, or by Gram's method. They may also be stained in tissues with a strong watery solution of dahlia,

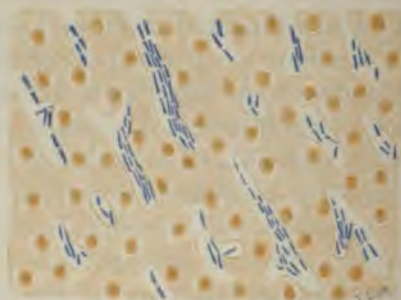
after which the tissue is decolorized in 2 per cent. soda solution, washed in water, dehydrated in alcohol, cleared up in xylol, and mounted in balsam. This leaves the bacilli stained, while the tissues are decolorized; or the tissues may be stained a contrast color—eosin, for example—after the dehydration in alcohol, and before the clearing up in xylol. In this case they must be washed out again in alcohol before using the xylol. In the preparation treated in this way, the rod-shaped organisms will be of a purple color, and will be seen in the capillaries of the tissues, while the tissues themselves will be of a pale rose color.

INOCULATION INTO ANIMALS.—Introduce into the subcutaneous tissues of the abdominal wall of a guinea-pig or rabbit, a portion of a pure culture of the bacillus anthracis. In about forty-eight hours the animal will be found dead. Immediately at the point of inoculation but little or no reaction will be noticed, but beyond this, extending for a long distance over the abdomen and thorax, the tissues will be markedly œdematous. Here and there, scattered through this œdematous tissue, small ecchymoses will be seen. The underlying muscles are pale in color. Inspection of the internal viscera reveals no very marked macroscopic changes except in the spleen. This is enlarged, dark in color, and soft. The liver may present the appearance of cloudy swelling; the lungs may be pale or pale-red in color; the heart is usually filled with blood. There are no other changes to be seen by the naked eye.

Prepare cover-slip preparations from the blood and other viscera. They will all be found to contain short rods in large numbers. Nowhere can be detected. Upon microscop

of the organs which have been hardened in alcohol, the capillaries are seen to be filled with the bacilli; in some places closely packed together in large numbers, at other points fewer in number. Usually they are present in largest numbers in those tissues having the greatest capillary distribution and at those points at which the circulation is slowest. They are moderately evenly distributed through the spleen. The glomeruli of the kidneys and the capillaries of the lungs are frequently quite packed with them. The capillaries of the liver contain them in large numbers. (Fig. 80.) Hemor-

FIG. 80.



Anthrax bacilli in liver of mouse; $\times$ about 450 diameters. Bacilli stained by Gram's method; tissue stained with Bismarck-brown.

rhages, probably due to rupture of capillaries by the mechanical pressure of the bacilli which are developing within them, not uncommonly occur. When this occurs in the mucous membranes of the alimentary tract, the blood may escape through the mouth or anus; when in the kidneys, through the uriniferous tubules.

Cultures from the different organs or from the œdematous fluid about the point of inoculation, result in growth of the *bacillus anthracis*.

The amphibia, dogs, and the majority of birds are not susceptible to this disease. Rats are difficult to infect. Rabbits, guinea-pigs, white mice, gray house-mice, sheep, and cattle are susceptible. Infection may occur either through the circulation, through the air-passages, through the alimentary tract, or, as we have just seen, through the subcutaneous tissues.

EXPERIMENTS.

Prepare three cultures of anthrax bacilli—one upon gelatin, one upon agar-agar, and one upon potato. Allow the gelatin culture to remain at the ordinary temperature of the room, place the agar culture in the incubator, and the potato culture at a temperature not above 18° to 20° C. Prepare cover-slips from each from day to day. What differences are observed?

Prepare two potato cultures of the anthrax bacillus. Place one in the incubator and retain the other at a temperature of from 18° to 20° C. Examine them each day. Do they develop in the same way?

From a fresh culture of anthrax bacilli, in which spore-formation is not yet begun, prepare a hanging-drop preparation; also a cover-slip preparation in the usual way and stain it with a strong gentian-violet solution, and another cover-slip preparation which is to be drawn through the flame twelve to fifteen times, stained with aniline gentian-violet, washed off in iodine solution and then in water. Examine these microscopically. Do they all present the same appearance? the differences due?

Do the anthrax threads, as seen in a fresh, growing, hanging drop, present the same morphological appearance as when dried and stained upon a cover-slip? How do they differ?

Liquefy a tube of agar-agar, and when it is at the temperature of 40° to 43° C., add a very minute quantity of an anthrax culture which is far advanced in the spore stage. Mix it thoroughly with the liquid agar-agar and from this prepare several hanging drops under strict antiseptic precautions, using the fluid agar-agar for the drops instead of bouillon or salt solution. Select from among these preparations that one in which the smallest number of spores are present. Under the microscope observe the development of this spore into a mature cell. Describe carefully the developmental stages.

Prepare a 1 : 1000 solution of carbolic acid in bouillon. Inoculate this with virulent anthrax spores. If no development occurs after two or three days at the temperature of the thermostat, prepare a solution of 1 : 1200, and continue until the point is reached at which the amount of carbolic acid present just admits of the development of the spores. When the proper dilution is reached prepare a dozen of such tubes and inoculate one of them with virulent anthrax spores. As soon as development is well advanced, transfer a loopful from this tube into a second of the carbolic acid tubes; when this has developed, then from this into a third, etc. After five or six generations which have been treated in this way, study the spore-production of the organisms in that tube. If it is normal, continue to inoculate from

one carbolic acid tube into another, and see if it is possible by this means to influence in any way the production of spores by the organism with which you are working. What is the effect, if any?

Prepare two bouillon cultures, each from *one drop* of blood of an animal dead of anthrax. Allow one of them to grow for from fourteen to eighteen hours in the incubator; allow the other to grow at the same temperature for three or four days. Remove the first after the time mentioned and subject it to a temperature of 80° C. for thirty minutes. At the end of this time prepare four plates from it. Make each plate with one drop from the heated bouillon culture. At the end of three or four days treat the second tube in identically the same way. How do the number of colonies which developed from the two different cultures compare? Was there any difference in the time required for their development on the plates?

From a potato culture of anthrax bacilli which has been in the incubator for three or four days, scrape away the growth and carefully break it up in 10 c.c. of sterilized normal salt solution. The more carefully it is broken up the more accurate will be the experiment. Place this in a bath of boiling water and at the end of one, three, five, seven, and ten minutes make a plate upon agar-agar with one loopful of the contents of this tube. Are the results on the plates alike?

Determine the exact time necessary to sterilize objects, such as silk or cotton threads, on which anthrax spores have been dried, by the steam method and by the hot-air method.

Prepare from the blood of an animal just dead of anthrax a bouillon culture. After this has been in the incubator for from three to four hours, subject it to a temperature of 55° C. for ten minutes. At the end of this time make plates from it, and also inoculate a rabbit subcutaneously with it. What are the results? Are the colonies on the plates in every way characteristic?

Inoculate six Erlenmeyer flasks of sterile bouillon, each containing about 35 c.c. of the medium, from either the blood of an animal just dead of anthrax or from a fresh virulent culture in which *no spores* are formed.

Place these flasks in the incubator at a temperature of 42.5° C. At the end of five, ten, fifteen, twenty, twenty-five, etc., days remove a flask. Label each flask as it is taken from the incubator with the exact number of days for which it had been at the temperature of 42.5° C. Study each flask carefully, both in its cultural peculiarities and its pathogenic properties when employed on animals.

Are these cultures identical in all respects with those that have been kept at 37° C.?

If they differ, in what respect is the difference most conspicuous?

Should any of the animals survive the inoculations made from the different cultures in the foregoing experiment, note carefully which one it is, and after ten to twelve days repeat the inoculation, using the same culture; if it again survives, inoculate it with the culture preceding the one just used in the order of removal from the incubator; if it still survives, inoculate it with virulent anthrax. What is the result? How is the result

to be explained? Do the cultures which were made from these flasks at the time of their removal from the incubators act in the same way toward animals as the organisms growing in the flasks? Is the action of each of these cultures the same for mice, guinea-pigs, and rabbits?

Prepare a 2 per cent. solution of sulphuric acid in distilled water; suspend in this a number of anthrax spores; at the end of three, six, and nine days at 35° C. inoculate both a guinea-pig and a rabbit. Prepare cultures from this suspension on the third, sixth, and ninth days; when the cultures have developed inoculate a rabbit and a guinea-pig from the culture made on the ninth day. Should the animal survive, inoculate it again after three or four days with a culture made on the sixth day. Do the results appear in any way peculiar?

CHAPTER XXV.

The most important of the organisms found in the soil—The nitrifying bacteria—The bacillus of anthrax—The bacillus of malignant oedema—The bacillus of symptomatic anthrax

By the employment of bacteriological methods in the study of the soil much light has been shed upon the cause and nature of the interesting and momentous biological phenomena that are there constantly in progress. Of these, the one that is of greatest importance comprises those changes that accompany the widespread process of disintegration and decomposition, to which reference has already been made. This resolution of dead, complex, organic compounds into simpler structures that are assimilable as food for growing vegetation is dependent upon the activities of bacteria located in the superficial layers of the ground. It is not throughout a simple process, brought about by a single, specific, species of bacteria, but represents a series of metabolic alterations, each definite step of which is most probably the result of the activities of different species or group of species, acting singly or together (sympiotically). Our knowledge upon the subject is not sufficient to permit of our following in detail the manifold alterations undergone by dead organic material in the process of decomposition that results in its conversion into inorganic compounds, with the formation of carbonic acid, ammonia, and water as conspicuous end-products; it suffices to say that, wherever dead organic matters are exposed to the action of the great

group of saprophytic bacteria, in which are found many different species, the alterations through which they pass are ultimately characterized by the appearance of these three bodies. When the process of decomposition occurs in the soil, however, it does not cease at this point, but we find still further alterations—alterations concerning more particularly the ammonia. This change in ammonia is characterized by the products of its oxidation, viz., by the formation of nitrous and nitric acids and their salts; it is not a result of the direct action of atmospheric oxygen upon the ammonia, but occurs through the instrumentality of a special group of saprophytes known as the *nitrifying* organisms. They are found in the most superficial layers of the ground, and though more common in some places than in others, they are, nevertheless, present over the entire earth's surface. The most conspicuous example of the functional activity of this specific form of soil organism is that seen in the immense saltpetre beds of Chili and Peru, where, through the activities of these microscopic plants, nitrates are produced from the ammonia of the fecal evacuations of sea-fowls in such enormous quantities as to form the source of supply of this article for the commercial world. A more familiar example, though hardly upon such a great scale, is that seen in the decomposition and subsequent nitrification of the organic matters of sewage and other impure waters in the process of purification by filtration through the soil; a process in which it is possible to follow, by chemical means, the organic matters from their condition as such through their conspicuous modifications to their ultimate conversion into ammonia and nitric acids. In fact the same break in

resulting ultimately in nitrification, occurs in all nitrogenous matters that are thrown upon the soil and allowed to decay. It is largely through this means that growing vegetation obtains the nitrogen necessary for the nutrition of its tissues, and when viewed from this standpoint we appreciate the importance of this process to all life, animal as well as vegetable, upon the earth.

These very important and interesting nitrifying organisms, of which there appear to be several, have been subjected to considerable study and are found to possess peculiarities of sufficient interest to justify a more or less detailed description. For a long time all efforts to isolate them from the soils in which they were believed to be present, and to cultivate them by the processes commonly employed in bacteriological work, resulted in failure, and it was not until it was found that the ordinary methods of bacteriological research were in no way applicable to the study of these bacteria that other, and ultimately successful, methods were devised. By these special devices nitrifying bacteria, capable of oxidizing ammonia to nitric acid, have been isolated and cultivated, and the more important of their biological peculiarities recorded by Winogradsky in Switzerland, by G. and P. F. Frankland in England, and by Jordan and Richards in this country. From the similarity of the properties, given by these several observers, of the nitrifying organisms isolated by them, it seems likely that they have all been working with either the same organism or very closely allied species.

The organism generally known as the *nitro-monas* of Winogradsky is a short, oval, and frequently almost spherical cell. It divides as usual for bacteria, but

there is little tendency for the daughter cells to adhere together or to form chains. In cultures they are commonly massed together, by a gelatinous material, in the form of zoöglæa. They do not form spores, and are probably not motile, though Winogradsky believes he has occasionally detected them in active motion. As has been stated, they do not grow upon the ordinary nutrient media, and cannot, therefore, be isolated by the means commonly employed in separating different species of bacteria. The most astonishing property of this organism is its ability to grow and perform its specific fermentive function in solutions absolutely devoid of organic matter. It is believed to be able to obtain its necessary carbon from carbonic acid. For its isolation and cultivation Winogradsky recommends the following solution :

Ammonium sulphate	1 gramme.
Potassium phosphate	1 "
Pure water	1000 c.c.

To each flask containing 100 c.c. of this fluid is added from 0.5 to 1.0 gramme of basic magnesium carbonate suspended in a little distilled water and sterilized by boiling. One of the flasks is then to be inoculated with a minute portion of the soil under investigation, and after four to five days a small portion is to be withdrawn by means of a *capillary* pipette from over the surface of the layer of magnesium carbonate and transferred to a second flask, and similarly after four or five days from this to a third flask, and so on. As this medium does not offer conditions favorable to the growth of bacteria requiring organic matter for their development, those that were originally introduced with the soil quickly disappear, and ultimately the fluid is purified.

ing organisms remain. These are to be seen as an almost transparent film attached to the clumps and granules of magnesium carbonate on the bottom of the flask.

For their cultivation upon a solid medium he employs a mineral gelatin, the gelatinizing principle of which is silicic acid. A solution of from 3 to 4 per cent. of silicic acid in distilled water, and having a specific gravity of 1.02, remains fluid and can be preserved in flasks in this condition (Kühne). By the addition of certain salts to such a solution gelatinization occurs and will be more or less complete, according to the proportion of salts added. The salts that have given the best results, and the method of mixing them are as follows :

<i>a</i>	{ Ammonium sulphate	0.4 gramme.
	{ Magnesium sulphate	0.05 "
	{ Calcium chloride	trace.
<i>b</i>	{ Potassium phosphate	0.1 gramme.
	{ Sodium carbonate	0.6 to 0.9 "
	{ Distilled water	100 c.c.

The sulphates and chloride (*a*) are mixed in 50 c.c. of the distilled water, and the phosphate and carbonate (*b*) in the remaining 50 c.c. in separate flasks.

Each flask with its contents is then sterilized and after cooling are mixed together. This represents the solution of mineral salts that is to be added to the silicic acid, little by little, until the proper degree of consistence is obtained (that of ordinary nutrient gelatin). This part of the process is best conducted in the culture dish. If it is desired to separate the colonies, as in an ordinary plate, the inoculation and mixing of the material introduced must be done before gelatinization is complete ; if the material is to be distributed

only over the surface of the medium, then the mixture must first be allowed to solidify.

By the use of this silicate-gelatin Winogradsky has isolated from the gelatinous film in the bottom of fluids undergoing nitrification a bacillus which he believes to be associated with the nitro-monas in the nitrifying process.

Our knowledge of these organisms is as yet too incomplete to permit of a satisfactory description of all their morphological and biological peculiarities. What has been said will serve to indicate the direction in which further studies of the subject should be prosecuted.

For further details the reader is referred to the original contributions.¹

In addition to the bacteria concerned in putrefaction and nitrification there are occasionally present in the soil micro-organisms possessing disease-producing properties. Conspicuous among these may be mentioned the bacillus of malignant œdema (*vibrio septique* of the French), the bacillus of tetanus, and the bacillus of symptomatic anthrax (*Rauschbrand*, German; *charbon symptomatique*, French). It is sometimes due to the presence of one or the other of these organisms that wounds to which soil has had access (crushed wounds from the wheels of cars or wagons, wounds received in agricultural work, etc.) are followed by such grave disturbances of the constitution.

¹ *Winogradsky*: *Annales de l'Institut Pasteur*, tomes iv., 1890, and v., 1891.

Jordan and Richards: *Rep. State Board of Health, Mass.* "Purification of Sewage and Water." 1890, vol. II, p. 864.

Frankland, G. C. and P. F.: *Proc. Royal Soc. London*, 1890, xlvii.

THE BACILLUS OF TETANUS.

In 1884 Nicolaier produced tetanus in mice and rabbits by the subcutaneous inoculation of particles of garden earth, and demonstrated that the pus produced at the point of inoculation was capable of reproducing the disease in other mice and rabbits. He did not succeed in isolating the organism in pure culture. In 1884 Carle and Rattone, and in 1886 Rosenbach demonstrated the infectious nature of tetanus as it occurs in man by producing the disease in animals through the inoculation of them with the secretions from the wounds of individuals affected with the disease. In 1889 Kitasato obtained the bacillus of tetanus in pure culture, and described his method of obtaining it and its biological peculiarities as follows :

Method of obtaining it. Inoculate several mice subcutaneously with the secretions from the wound of a case of typical tetanus. This material usually contains not only tetanus bacilli, but other organisms as well, so that at autopsy, if tetanus results, there may be more or less of suppuration at the seat of inoculation in the mice. In order to separate the tetanus bacillus from the others that are present, the pus is smeared upon the surface of several slanted blood-serum or agar-agar tubes and placed at 37° to 38° C. After twenty-four hours all the organisms will have developed and microscopic examination will usually reveal the presence of a few tetanus bacilli, recognizable by their shape, viz., that of a small pin, with a spore serving as the head. After forty-eight hours at 38° C. the culture is subjected to a temperature of 80° C. in a water-bath for from three-quarters to one hour. At the end

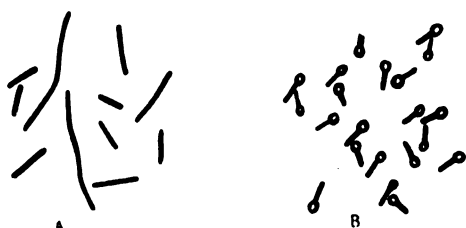
of this time, series of plates or Esmarch tubes in slightly alkaline gelatin are made with very small amounts of the culture and kept in an atmosphere of hydrogen (see pages 175-178). They are then kept at from 18° to 20° C., and at the end of about one week the tetanus bacillus begins to appear in the form of colonies. After about ten days the colonies should not only be examined microscopically, but each colony that had developed in the hydrogen atmosphere should be obtained in pure culture and again grown under the same conditions. The colonies that grow only without oxygen, and which are composed of the pin-shaped organisms, must be tested upon mice. If they represent growths of the tetanus bacillus, the typical clinical manifestations of the disease will be produced in these animals.

In obtaining the organism from the soil much difficulty is experienced. There are a number of spore-bearing organisms here that are facultative in their relation to oxygen, and are, therefore, very difficult to eliminate; and there is, moreover, one in particular, that, like the tetanus bacillus, forms a polar spore. This spore is, however, less round and much more oval than that of the tetanus bacillus, and gives to the organism containing it more the shape of a javelin (or *clostridium*, properly speaking) than that of a *pin*, the characteristic shape of the tetanus organism. It is non-pathogenic, and grows both with and without oxygen, and should, consequently, not be mistaken for the latter bacillus. It must also be borne in mind that there are occasionally present in the soil still other bacilli which form polar spores, and which, when in this stage, are almost identical in appearance with the tetanus bacillus, but they will usually be found to differ in their

relation to oxygen, and they are also without disease-producing properties.

Morphology. It is a slender rod with rounded ends. It may appear as single rods, or, in cultures, as long threads. It is motile, though not actively so. The

FIG. 81.



Tetanus bacillus. A. Vegetative stage, from gelatin culture. B. Spore stage, showing pin shapes.

motility is somewhat increased by observing the organism upon a warm stage.

At the temperature of the body it rapidly forms spores. These are round, thicker than the cell, and usually occupy one of its poles, giving to the rod the appearance of a small pin. (Fig. 81.) When in the spore stage it is not motile.

It is stained by the ordinary aniline staining reagents. It remains colored under the employment of Gram's method.

Cultural peculiarities. It is an exquisite anaërobe and cannot be brought to development under the access of oxygen. It grows well in an atmosphere of pure hydrogen, but does not grow under the influence of carbonic acid.

It grows in ordinary nutrient gelatin and agar-agar of a slightly alkaline reaction. Gelatin is slowly liquefied, with the coincident production of a small amount

of gas. Neither agar-agar nor blood-serum are liquefied by its growth.

The addition to the media of from 1.5 to 2 per cent. of glucose, 0.1 per cent. of indigo-sodium-sulphate, or 5 per cent. by volume of blue litmus tincture favors its growth.

It grows well in alkaline bouillon under an atmosphere of hydrogen.

It may be cultivated through numerous generations under artificial conditions without loss of virulence.

Appearance of the colonies. The colonies on gelatin under an atmosphere of hydrogen have, in their early stages, somewhat the appearance of the common *bacillus subtilis*, viz., they have a dense, felt-like centre surrounded by a fringe of delicate radii. The liquefaction is so slow that the appearance is retained for a relatively long time, but eventually becomes altered. In very old colonies the entire mass is made up of a number of distinct threads that give to it the appearance of a common mould. (See Fig. 82.)

In stab cultures. In stab cultures made in

FIG. 82.



Colonies of the tetanus bacillus four days old, made by distributing the organisms through a tube nearly filled with glucose-gelatin. Cultivation under an atmosphere of hydrogen. (From FRANKEL and PFELFER.)

quarters filled with
3 cm. below the

surface and gradually assumes the appearance of a cloudy linear mass with prolongations radiating into the gelatin from all sides. Liquefaction with coincident gas-production results, and may reach almost to the surface of the gelatin.

Relations to temperature. It grows best under a temperature of from 36° to 38° C.; gelatin cultures kept at from 20° to 25° C. begin to grow after three or four days. In an atmosphere of hydrogen at from 18° to 20° C., growth does not usually occur before one week. No growth occurs under 14° C. At the temperature of the body, spores are formed in cultures in about thirty hours, whereas in gelatin cultures at from 20° to 25° C. they do not usually appear before a week, when the lower part of the gelatin is quite fluid.

Spores of the tetanus bacillus when dried upon bits of thread over sulphuric acid in the desiccator and subsequently kept exposed to the air, retain their vitality and virulence for a number of months. Their vitality is not destroyed by an exposure of one hour to 80° C.; on the other hand, an exposure of five minutes to 100° C. in the steam sterilizer kills them. They resist the action of 5 per cent. carbolic acid for ten hours, but succumb when exposed to it for fifteen hours. In the same solution, plus 0.5 per cent. hydrochloric acid, they are no longer active after two hours. They are killed when acted upon for three hours by corrosive sublimate, 1 : 1000, and in thirty minutes by the same solution plus 0.5 per cent. hydrochloric acid.

Action upon animals. After subcutaneous inoculation of mice with minute portions of a pure culture of this organism tetanus develops in twenty-four hours and ends fatally in from two to three days. Rats, guinea-

pigs, and rabbits are similarly affected, but only by larger doses than are required for mice; the fatal dose for a rabbit being from 0.3 to 0.5 c.c. of a well-developed bouillon culture. The period of incubation for rats and guinea-pigs is twenty-four to thirty hours, and for rabbits from two to three days. Pigeons are but slightly, if at all, susceptible.

The tetanic convulsions always appear first in the parts nearest the seat of inoculation and subsequently become general.

At autopsies upon animals that have succumbed to inoculations with *pure cultures*¹ of the tetanus bacillus there is little to be seen by either macroscopic, microscopic, or culture examination. At the seat of inoculation there is usually only a hyperæmic condition. There is no suppuration. The internal organs do not present any change, and culture methods of examination show them to be free from bacteria. The death of the animal results from the absorption of a soluble poison, either produced by the bacteria at the seat of inoculation or, which seems more probable, produced by the bacteria *in the culture* from which they are obtained and introduced with them into the tissues of the animal at the time of the inoculation. In support of the latter hypothesis: Mice have been inoculated with pure cultures of this organism; after one hour the point at which the inoculation was made was excised and the tissues cauterized with the hot iron; notwithstanding the short time during which the organisms

¹ Animals and human beings that have become infected with this organism in the natural way commonly present a condition of suppuration at the site of infection; this is probably not due to the tetanus bacillus, but to other bacteria that have been introduced into the wound at the time of infection.

were in contact with the tissues and the subsequent radical treatment, the animals died after the usual interval and with the regular symptoms of tetanus.

The poison produced by the tetanus bacillus, and to which the symptoms of the disease are due, has been isolated and subjected to detailed study; some of its peculiarities, as given by Kitasato, are as follows:¹

“When cultures of this organism are robbed of their bacteria by filtration through porcelain, the filtrate contains the soluble poison and is capable, when injected into animals, of causing tetanus.

“Inoculations of other animals with bits of the organs of the animal dead from the action of the tetanus poison produce no result; but similar inoculations with the blood or with the serous exudate from the pleural cavity always result in the appearance of tetanus. The poison is, therefore, largely present in the circulating fluids.

“The greatest amount of poison is produced by cultivation in fresh neutral bouillon of a very slightly alkaline reaction.

“The activity of the poison is destroyed by an exposure of one and one-half hours to 55° C.; of twenty minutes to 60° C.; and of five minutes to 65° C.

“By drying at the temperature of the body under access of air the poison is destroyed, but by drying at the ordinary temperature of the room, or at this temperature in the desiccator over sulphuric acid, it is not destroyed.

“Diffuse daylight diminishes the intensity of the poison. Its intensity is preserved for a much longer time when kept in the dark.

¹ Zeitschr. für Hygiene, 1891, Bd. x. p. 267.

“Direct sunlight robs it of its poisonous properties in from fifteen to eighteen hours.

“Its activity is not diminished by diluting a fixed amount with water or nutrient bouillon.

“Mineral acids and strong alkalies lessen its intensity.”

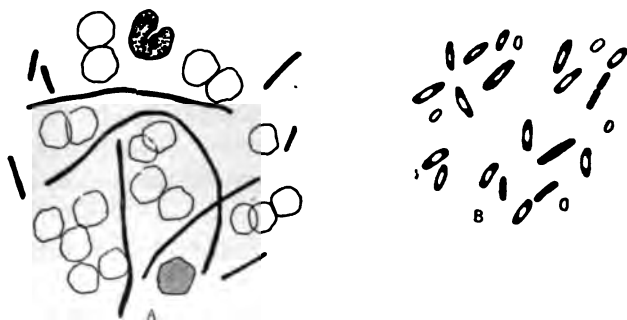
The chemical nature of this poison is not positively known, but from the recent observations of Brieger and Cohn it is not to be classed with the albumins in the sense in which the word is commonly used. When obtained in a pure, concentrated form its toxic properties are seen to be altered by acids, by alkalies, by sulphuretted hydrogen, and by temperatures above 70° C. Even when carefully protected from light, moisture, and air it gradually becomes diminished in strength. When freshly prepared by the methods of the authors just cited its potency is almost incredible, 0.000,05 milligramme being sufficient to cause fatal tetanus in a mouse weighing fifteen grammes.

THE BACILLUS OF MALIGNANT ŒDEMA.

The bacillus of malignant œdema, also known as the *vibrio septique* is another pathogenic form almost everywhere present in the soil. In certain respects it is a little like the bacillus of anthrax, and was at one time confounded with it, but it differs in the marked peculiarity of being a strict anaërobe. It was first observed by Pasteur, but it was not until later that Koch, Liborius, Kitt, and others, described its peculiarities in detail. It can usually be obtained by inserting under the skin of rabbits or guinea-pigs small portions of garden earth, street dust, or decomposing

organic substances. There results a widespread œdema, with more or less of gas production in the tissues. In the œdematous fluid about the seat of inoculation the organism under consideration may be detected. (Fig. 83, A.)

FIG. 83.



Bacillus of malignant œdema.

A. Bacilli in short and long threads in œdematous fluid from site of inoculation of guinea-pig. (After KOCH.)

B. Spore stage of the organism; from culture.

It is a rod of about 3 to 3.5 μ long and from 1 to 1.1 μ thick, *i. e.*, it is about as long as the *bacillus anthracis* but is a trifle more slender. It is usually found in pairs, joined end to end, but may occur as longer threads; particularly is this the case in cultures. When in pairs, the ends that approximate are squarely cut, while the distal extremities are rounded. When occurring singly, both ends are rounded. (How does it differ in this respect from the *bacillus anthracis*?) It is slowly motile and its flagella are located both at the ends and along the sides of the rod. It forms spores that are usually located in or near the middle of the body of the cell. These may cause a swelling of the

cell at the point at which they are located and give to it a more or less oval, spindle, or lozenge shape. (Fig. 83, B.)

It is a strict anaërobie, growing on all the ordinary media, but not under the access of oxygen. It grows well in a hydrogen atmosphere. It causes liquefaction of gelatin.

In tubes containing about 20 to 30 c.c. of gelatin that has been liquefied, inoculated with a small amount of the culture, and then rapidly solidified in ice-water, growth appears in the form of isolated colonies at or near the bottom of the tube in from two to three days at 20° C. These colonies, when of from 0.5 to 1 mm. in diameter, appear as little spheres filled with clear liquid, and are difficult, for this reason, to detect. (Fig. 84.)

As they gradually increase in size the contents of the spheres become cloudy and are marked by fine radiating stripes, easily to be detected with the aid of a small hand-lens. In deep-stab cultures in agar-agar and gelatin, development only occurs along the track of puncture at a distance below the surface. Growth is frequently accompanied by the production of gas-bubbles.

It causes rapid liquefaction of blood-serum with production of gas-bubbles, and in two or three days the

FIG. 84.



Colonies of the bacillus of malignant oedema in deep gelatin culture. (After FRÄNKEL and PFEIFFER.)

entire medium may have become converted into a yellowish, semi-fluid mass.

The most satisfactory results in the study of the colonies are obtained by the use of plates of nutrient agar-agar kept in a chamber in which all oxygen has been replaced by hydrogen. The colonies appear as dull-whitish points, irregular in outline, and when viewed with a low-power lens are seen to be marked by a network of branching and interlacing lines that radiate in an irregular way from the centre toward the periphery.

It grows well at the ordinary temperature of the room, but reaches its highest development at the temperature of the body.

It stains readily with the ordinary aniline dyes. It is decolorized when treated by Gram's method.

Pathogenesis. The animals that are known to be susceptible to inoculation with this organism are man, horses, calves, dogs, goats, sheep, pigs, chickens, pigeons, rabbits, guinea-pigs, and mice. Cases are recorded in which men and horses have developed the disease after injuries, doubtless due to the introduction into the wound, at the time, of soil or dust containing the organism.

If one introduces into a pocket beneath the skin of a susceptible animal about as much garden earth as can be held upon the point of a penknife, the animal frequently dies in from twenty-four to forty-eight hours. The most conspicuous result found at autopsy is a widespread œdema at and about the seat of inoculation. The œdematous fluid is at places clear, while again it may be marked with blood; it is usually rich in bacilli (Fig. 83, A) and contains gas-bubbles. Of the internal

organs, only the spleen shows much change. It is large, dark in color, and contains numerous bacilli. If the autopsy is made immediately after death, bacilli are not commonly found in the blood of the heart, but if deferred for several hours the organisms will be found in this locality also, a fact that speaks for their multiplication in the body after death. At the moment of death they are present in all the internal viscera and on the serous surfaces of the organs.

Mice are probably most susceptible to the action of this organism, and it is not rare to find the organisms in the heart's blood, even immediately after death. They die, as a result of these inoculations, in from sixteen to twenty hours.

Where pure cultures are used for inoculation a relatively large amount must be employed, and it should be introduced into a deep pocket in the subcutaneous tissues some distance from the surface. In continuing the inoculations from animal to animal small portions of organs or a few drops of the œdema-fluid should be used. The inoculation may also be successfully made by introducing into a pocket in the skin bits of sterilized thread or paper upon which cultures have been dried.

The methods for obtaining the organism in pure culture, from the cadaver of an animal dead from inoculation, are in all essential respects the same as those given for obtaining cultures from tissues in general, but it must be remembered that the organism is a strict anaërobie and will not grow under the influence of oxygen (see methods of cultivating anaërobic species).

In some respects this bacillus suggests the *bacillus anthracis*, but differs from it in so many important

details that there is no excuse for confounding the two.

NOTE.—From what has been said of this organism, what are the most important differential points between it and the *bacillus anthracis*? Inoculate several mice with small portions of garden earth and street dust. Isolate the organism that agrees most nearly with the description here given for the bacillus of malignant œdema. Compare its morphological, biological, and pathogenic peculiarities with those of the *bacillus anthracis* under similar circumstances.

Still another pathogenic organism that may be present in the soil is

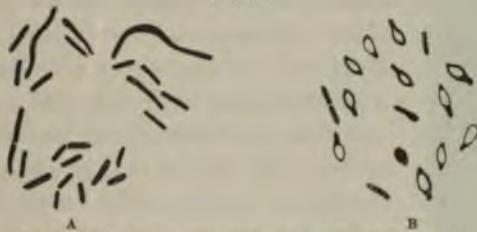
THE BACILLUS OF SYMPTOMATIC ANTHRAX;

bactérie du charbon symptomatique (French); *Bacillus des Rauschbrand* (German). It is the organism concerned in the production of the disease of young cattle and sheep commonly known as “black leg,” “quarter evil,” and “quarter ill,” a disease that prevails in certain localities during the warm months, and which is characterized by a peculiar emphysematous swelling of the muscular and subcutaneous cellular tissues over the quarters. The muscles and cellular tissues at the points affected are seen on section to be saturated with bloody serum, and the muscles, particularly, are of a dark, almost black color. In these areas, in the bloody transudates of the serous cavities, in the bile, and, after death, in the internal organs, the organism to be described can always be detected. It is manifest from this that the soil of localities over which infected herds are grazing may readily become contaminated

through a variety of channels, and thus serve as a source of further dissemination of the disease.

The organism was first observed by Feser, and subsequently by Bollinger and others. The most complete description of its morphological and biological peculiarities is that of Kitasato (*Zeitschr. für Hygiene*, Bd. vi. p. 105; Bd. viii. p. 55). The following is from Kitasato's contributions: It is an actively motile rod of about 3 to 5 μ long by 0.5 to 0.6 μ thick. It is rounded at its ends, and, as a rule, is seen singly, though now and then pairs joined end to end may occur. It has no tendency to form very long threads. (Fig. 85, A.)

FIG. 85.



Bacillus of symptomatic anthrax. (After KITASATO.)
A. Vegetating forms from a gelatin culture. B. Spore forms from an agar culture.

It forms spores, and when in this stage is seen to be slightly swollen at or near one of its poles, the location in which the spore usually appears. (Fig. 85, B)

It is conspicuously prone to undergo degenerative changes, and involution forms are commonly seen, not only in fresh cultures but in the tissues of affected animals as well.

Though actively motile when in the vegetative stage, it loses this property and becomes motionless when spores are formed.

It is strictly anaërobic and cannot be cultivated in an atmosphere in which oxygen is present. It grows best under hydrogen, and does not grow under carbonic acid.

FIG. 86.



Colonies of the bacillus of symptomatic anthrax, in deep gelatin culture. (After FRÄNKEL and FREIFFER.)

The media most favorable to its growth are those containing glucose (1.5 to 2 per cent.), glycerin (4 to 5 per cent.), or some other reducing body, such as indigo-sodium-sulphate, sodium formate, etc.

When cultivated upon gelatin plates in an atmosphere of hydrogen the colonies appear as irregular, slightly lobulated masses. After a short time liquefaction of the gelatin occurs and the colony presents a dark, dense, lobulated and broken centre, surrounded by a much more delicate fringe-like zone.

When distributed through a deep layer of liquefied gelatin that is subsequently caused to solidify, colonies develop at only the lower portions of the tube. The single colonies appear as discrete globules that cause rapid liquefaction of the gelatin and ultimately coalesce into irregular, lobulated, liquid areas. In some of the larger colonies an ill-defined, concentric arrangement of alternate clear and cloudy zones can be made out. (Fig. 86.)

In deep-stab cultures in gelatin growth begins after about two to three days at 20° to 25° C. It begins usually at about one or two centimetres below the surface and causes slow liquefac-

tion at and around the track of its development. During the course of its growth gas-bubbles are produced.

In deep-stab cultures in agar-agar at 37° to 38° C. growth begins in from twenty-four to forty-eight hours, also at about one or two centimetres below the surface, and is accompanied by the production of gas-bubbles. There is produced at the same time a peculiar, penetrating odor somewhat suggestive of that of rancid butter. Under these conditions spores are formed after about thirty hours.

It grows well in bouillon of very slightly acid reaction under hydrogen, but does not retain its virulence for so long a time as when cultivated upon solid media. In this medium it develops in the form of white flocculi that sink ultimately to the bottom of the glass and leave the supernatant fluid quite clear. If the vessel is now gently shaken these delicate flakes are distributed homogeneously through it. In bouillon cultures there is often seen a delicate ring of gas-bubbles around the point of contact of the tube and the surface of the bouillon. There is produced also a peculiar penetrating sour or rancid odor.

It grows best at the body temperature, *i. e.*, from 37° to 38° C., but can also be brought to development at from 16° to 18° C. Under 14° C. no growth is seen. Spore formation appears much sooner at the higher than at the lower temperatures. When its spores are dried upon bits of thread in the desiccator over sulphuric acid and then kept under ordinary conditions they retain their vitality and virulence for many months. Similarly, bits of flesh from the affected areas of animals dead of this disease, when completely dried, are

seen to retain the power of reproducing the disease for a long time. The spores are tolerably resistant to the influence of heat: when subjected to a temperature of 80° C. for one hour their virulence is not affected, but an exposure to 100° C. for five minutes completely destroys them. They are also seen to be somewhat resistant to the action of chemicals: when exposed to 5 per cent. carbolic acid they retain their disease-producing properties for about ten hours, whereas the vegetative forms are destroyed in from three to five minutes; in corrosive sublimate solution of the strength of 1:1000 the spores are killed in two hours.

When gelatin cultures are examined microscopically the organisms are usually seen as single rods with rounded ends. When cultivated in agar-agar at a higher temperature spores are formed after a short time; these spores are oval, slightly flattened on their sides, thicker than the bacilli, and, as stated, frequently occupy a position inclining to one of the poles of the bacillus, though they are as often seen in the middle. The bacillus containing a spore has usually a clubbed or spindle shape.

It stains readily with the ordinary aniline dyes. It is decolorized by Gram's method. Its spores may be stained by the methods usually employed in spore-staining.

Pathogenesis.—When susceptible animals, especially guinea-pigs, are inoculated in the deeper subcutaneous cellular tissues with pure cultures of this organism, or with bits of tissue from the affected area of another animal dead of the disease, death ensues in from one to two days. It is preceded by rise of temperature, loss of appetite, and general indisposition. The seat of inocula-

tion is swollen and painful, and drops of bloody serum may sometimes be seen exuding from it. At autopsy the subcutaneous cellular tissues and underlying muscles present a condition of emphysema and extreme œdema. The œdematous fluid is often blood-stained and the muscles are of a blackish or blackish-brown color. The lymphatic glands are markedly hyperæmic. The internal viscera present but little alteration visible to the naked eye. In the blood-stained serous fluid about the point of inoculation short bacilli are present in large numbers. These often present slight swellings at the middle or near the end. They are not seen as threads but lie singly in the tissues. Occasionally two will be seen joined end to end. If the autopsy is made immediately after death these organisms may not be detected in the internal organs, but if not made until after a few hours they will be found there also. In fresh autopsies only vegetative forms of the organism may be found, but later (in from twenty to twenty-four hours) spore-bearing rods may be detected. (How does this compare with the *bacillus anthracis*?) By successive inoculations of susceptible animals with the serous fluid from the seat of inoculation of the dead animal, the disease may be reproduced.

Cattle, sheep, goats, guinea-pigs, and mice are susceptible to infection with this organism, and present the conditions above described; whereas horses, asses, and white rats present only local swelling at the site of inoculation. Swine, dogs, cats, rabbits, ducks, chickens, and pigeons are, as a rule, naturally immune to the disease.

Though closely simulating the bacillus of malignant œdema in many of its peculiarities, this organism can,

nevertheless, be readily distinguished from it. It is smaller; it does not develop into long threads in the tissues; it is more actively motile, and forms spores more readily in the tissues of the animal than does the bacillus of malignant œdema. In their relation to animals they also differ, viz.: cattle, while conspicuously susceptible to symptomatic anthrax, are practically immune toward malignant œdema; and while swine, dogs, rabbits, chickens, and pigeons are readily infected with malignant œdema, they are not, as a rule, susceptible to symptomatic anthrax. Horses are affected only locally, and not seriously, by the bacillus of symptomatic anthrax, but they are conspicuously susceptible to both artificial inoculation and natural infection by the bacillus of malignant œdema.

The distribution of the two organisms over the earth's surface is also quite different. The œdema bacillus is present in almost all soils, while the bacillus of symptomatic anthrax appears to be confined to certain localities, especially places over which infected herds have been pastured.

A single attack of symptomatic anthrax, if not fatal, affords subsequent protection, while infection with the malignant œdema bacillus appears to predispose to recurrence of the disease. (Baumgarten.)

CHAPTER XXVI.

Infection and immunity—The types of infection ; intimate nature of infection—Septicæmia, toxæmia, variations in infectious processes—Immunity, natural and acquired—The hypotheses that have been advanced in explanation of immunity—Conclusions.

AN organism capable of producing disease we call *pathogenic* or *infective*, and the process by which it produces disease we know as *infection*. Diseases, therefore, that depend for their existence upon the presence of bacteria in the tissues are *infectious* diseases.

What is the intimate nature of this process we call infection? Is it due to the *mechanical presence* of living bacteria in the body, or does it result from the *deposition* in the tissues of substances produced by these bacteria, that are either locally or generally incompatible with life? Or, is the group of pathological alterations and constitutional symptoms seen in these diseases the result of *abstraction from* the tissues, by the bacteria growing in them, of substances essential to their vitality? These are some of the more important of the questions that present themselves in the course of analysis of this interesting phenomenon.

Let us look into several typical infectious diseases, note what we find, and see how far the results will aid us in formulating an opinion. We begin with a study of those diseases in which there is a general infection, *i. e.*, in which there is a general distribution of the infective agents throughout the body. This group comprises the "*septic*" and of them the disease of

animals known as anthrax represents a type of the condition. If the cadaver of an animal dead of anthrax be examined by bacteriological methods it will be discovered that there is present in all the organs and tissues an organism, a bacillus, of definite form and biological characteristics; and if the organs and tissues generally be subjected to microscopic examination this same organism will be found always present and always located within the capillaries. At many points it will be seen crowded in the capillaries in such numbers as to almost, if not quite, burst them, and very commonly their lumen for a considerable extent is entirely occluded by the growing bacilli. In such a case as this we might be tempted to conclude that death had resulted from mechanical interference with the capillary circulation. Suppose, however, we subject the cultures obtained from this animal to conditions, either chemical or thermal, that are not particularly favorable to their normal development, and from time to time inoculate susceptible animals with the cultures so treated. The result will be that as we continue to expose our cultures to unfavorable surroundings, the period of time that is required for them to cause the death of animals will, in some cases, gradually become extended, until finally death will not ensue at all after inoculation. If, as these animals die, a careful record of the conditions found at autopsy be kept and compared, it will ultimately be noticed that the animals that die a longer time after inoculation present conditions more or less at variance with those seen in the original animal. These differences usually consist in a diminution of the number of bacilli that appear upon culture plates from the blood and internal organs, and in a lessening

in the amount of mechanical obstruction offered to the circulation through plugging of the capillaries by masses of bacilli; as detected by microscopic examination of sections of the organs; indeed, this latter condition may often have almost, if not quite, disappeared. We see here an animal dead from the invasion of the same organism that produced death in the first animal, but with little or none of the appearances to which we were inclined to attribute the death of that animal. It is apparent then, that this organism, with which we have been working, can destroy the vitality of an animal in a way other than by mechanically obstructing its bloodvessels; it possesses some other means of destroying life. Possibly its growth in the tissues is accompanied by the production of soluble poisons, which when present in the blood are not compatible with life.

Let us see if the study of another group of infections can shed any light upon the subject. Introduce into the subcutaneous tissues of a guinea-pig a small amount of a pure culture of the bacillus of diphtheria. In three or four days the animal dies. We proceed with our autopsy in exactly the same way that we did with the animals dead of anthrax, and will be astonished to find that the organs, blood, and tissues generally are sterile,¹ in so far as the presence of the organism with which the animal was inoculated is concerned, and by both culture and microscopic methods it is only possible to detect them at the site of inoculation, where they were deposited. It is very evident that we have here a condition with which mechanical plugging of the capillaries could have had nothing to

¹ In by far the greater number of circumstances there are exceptions.

under particular

do, for there are no organisms in the blood to interfere with its circulation. Our hypothesis then in regard to the condition found in our first case of anthrax is again not tenable. Similarly, if an animal that has died of tetanus be examined we do not find the bacilli in the tissues and circulating fluids generally, and, indeed, often fail to find them at the point of injury. Plainly, these fatal results with their accompanying tissue changes occur from the presence of a something that cannot be detected by either cultural or microscopic methods, and this something can be only a soluble substance that is produced at the site of inoculation, gains access to the circulation and through this channel causes death, for it is hardly to be imagined that the insignificant wound made in the course of inoculation could *per se* have had this effect. In other words, these latter animals have died from what is called *toxæmia* (poison in the blood), a condition conspicuously different from *septicæmia*, as seen in our first animal dead of anthrax.

There are, again, other infectious diseases, many of which are known to present variations from what might be considered a typical course, that may still further serve to support the view that infection is a process in which the mechanical effect of organisms in the circulating fluids is of little consequence. Conspicuous among these are the infections that follow upon the introduction into the tissues of susceptible animals of cultures of the *micrococcus lanceolatus* (pneumococcus), of the bacillus of chicken cholera, and of the organisms concerned in the production of the so-called hemorrhagic septicæmias. When running their normal course these organisms cause typical septicæmias when

introduced into animals, but often, from causes not entirely clear, the animals die with only local lesions, or with but very few organisms in the internal viscera. We see here conditions analogous to those observed in the two experiments with anthrax, viz., we find a group of diseases that are normally classed as septicæmias, because of the general invasion of the body by the organisms concerned in their production, but which frequently assume a purely local character—in both instances proving fatal to the animal infected. From what we have seen it is manifestly probable, whether these diseases be designated as septicæmias or septic troubles, or toxæmias or toxic troubles, that death is produced in all instances by the poisonous products resulting from the growth of the infecting bacteria. In the case of typical anthrax, and other varieties of septicæmia, the production of this poison is associated with the general dissemination of the organisms throughout the body, while in those infections often referred to as toxæmias, of which diphtheria may be taken as a type, the poison is produced by the organisms that remain localized at the site of invasion, and is from thence disseminated throughout the body by the circulating fluids.

Infection thus far, then, appears to be a chemical process. Through special investigations that have been made upon the products of growth of certain pathogenic bacteria, this opinion has received further confirmation; it has been found possible by the use of appropriate methods to isolate, from among the mass of material in which certain of these organisms have been artificially cultivated, substances which, when separated from the bacteria by which they were produced, possess the power of causing in animals all the constitutional symp-

toms and pathological tissue changes that are seen to occur in the course of infection by the organisms themselves.

In some instances the production of the poisonous principles, even under artificial conditions of cultivation, is of a most astonishing nature, and poisons result that, in the degree of their toxicity, exceed anything hitherto known to us. For instance, the potencies of the poisons that have been isolated from cultures of the *bacillus diphtheriæ* and the bacillus of tetanus have been carefully determined by experiments upon animals, and it has been found that 0.4 milligramme of the former is capable of killing eight guinea-pigs, each weighing 400 grammes, or two rabbits, each weighing three kilogrammes (Roux and Yersin¹); and that 0.0001 milligramme of the latter will produce tetanus in a mouse, with all the characteristic manifestations of the disease (Brieger and Cohn²).

In short, infection may be best conceived as a contest between the invading organisms on the one side and the resisting tissues of the animal body on the other, the weapons of offense of the former being the poisonous products of their growth, and the means of defense possessed by the latter being substances which are, so to speak, antidotal to these poisons. If the tissue elements are not of sufficient vigor to neutralize the bacterial poisons, the bacteria are victorious, and infection results, while, if there is failure to establish a condition of disease, the tissues are victorious, and are said to be *resistant* or to possess *immunity* to this particular form of infection.

¹ Annales de l'Institut Pasteur, tome iii., 1889, p. 287.

² Zeitschr. für Hygiene u. Infektionskrankheiten, Bd. xv., Heft 1, 1893.

It is a common observation that certain human beings and animals are more susceptible to the different forms of infection than are others, and that some are apparently not at all liable to particular diseases ; in other words, they are *naturally immune* to the maladies.

Again, it is often observed that an individual or animal after having recovered from certain forms of infection has thereby acquired protection against subsequent attacks of like character ; in other words, they are said to have *acquired immunity* to this trouble.

The problem involving the explanation of these interesting observations has afforded material for reflection and hypothesis for a long time, but it is only through investigations that have been conducted during the past few years that it has met with anything approaching reasonable solution.

Conspicuous among the observers who have endeavored to explain the *modus operandi* of immunity may be mentioned Chauveau, Pasteur, Metchnikoff, Buchner, Flügge, and his pupils (Smirnow, Sirotinin, Bitter, Nuttall) Fodor, and Hankin, and in the following pages we will present briefly the results of investigations by these various authors.

In 1880 Chauveau¹ suggested an explanation for the phenomenon of immunity that has since been known as the *retention hypothesis*. It is, in short, as follows: That the immunity commonly seen to exist in animals that have passed through an attack of infection, against a subsequent outbreak of the same malady, and likewise the immunity that has been produced artificially by vaccination, exists by virtue of some bacterial product that has been *retained or deposited* in the tissues of

those animals, and that this product by its presence prevents the development of the same organisms if they should subsequently gain access to the body.

Bearing upon this view the experiments of Sirotinin,¹ made with cultures of various pathogenic bacteria, demonstrated that in so far as culture experiments were concerned the only substances produced by growing bacteria that could be in any way inimical to their further development were substances that gave rise to alterations in the reaction of the medium in which they were developing, *i. e.*, acids or alkalies produced by the bacteria themselves. So long as the organisms were not actually dead from exposure to these substances, correction of the abnormal reaction was followed by further development of the organisms. Sirotinin also states that materials containing the products of growth of bacteria, so long as they are maintained at a neutral or only slightly alkaline reaction, serve very well as media upon which to cultivate again the same organism that produced them, providing the nutritive elements have not been entirely exhausted. He remarks: that if in such a concentrated form as we find the life-products of bacteria in the medium in which they are growing, no inhibitory compounds beyond acids and alkalies are to be detected, it is hardly probable that they are produced in the tissues of the living animal, and retained there, to a degree sufficient to prevent the growth of bacteria that may subsequently gain entrance to these tissues, after the disappearance of the organisms concerned in the primary invasion. On the other hand, Salmon and Smith,² Roux and Chamberland,³ and

¹ *Zeitschr. für Hygiene*, Bd. iv., 1888.

² *Proc. of the Biol. Soc.*, Washington, D. C., 1886, vol. iii.

³ *Annales de l'Institut Pasteur*, tomes 1, ii., 1888-89.

others had demonstrated that a sort of immunity against certain forms of infection may be afforded to susceptible animals by the injection into their tissues of the products of growth of particular organisms which, if themselves introduced into the animal body would produce fatal results. In the light of subsequent experiments, however, the interpretation of this phenomenon is not that claimed by the supporters of this hypothesis.

As opposed to the view of Chauveau, Pasteur¹ and certain of his pupils believed that the immunity frequently afforded to the tissues by an attack of infection, or following upon vaccination against infection, was due rather to an *abstraction* from the tissues, by the organisms that were concerned in the primary attack, of a something that is necessary to the growth of the infecting organism should it gain entrance to the body at any subsequent time. This view is known as the *exhaustion hypothesis*.

As to the exhaustion hypothesis of Pasteur, there is, as yet, no evidence whatever for its support. The work of Bitter,² which was undertaken with the view of determining if, in the process of acquiring immunity, there occurred this exhaustion from the tissues of material necessary to the growth of bacteria that might gain entrance to them at some later date, gave only negative results. The flesh of animals in which immunity had been produced contained all the elements necessary for the growth and nutrition of the bacteria against which the animals had been protected, just as did the flesh of non-vaccinated animals.

In 1884 Metchnikoff³ published the first of a series

¹ 880. * Zeitschr. für Hygiene, Bd. iv., 1888.
kaiserl. k. k. Institut der Universität Wien., 1884, Bd. v.,
84.

of observations upon the relation that is seen to exist between certain of the mesodermal cells of lower animals and insoluble particles that may be present in the tissues of these animals. The outcome of these investigations was the establishment of his well-known doctrine of *phagocytosis*, the principle of which is that the wandering cells of the animal organism, the leucocytes, possess the property of taking up, rendering inert, and digesting micro-organisms with which they may come in contact in the tissues. Metchnikoff believed that in this way immunity against infection may in many, if not all, cases be explained. He believed that susceptibility to or immunity against infection was essentially a matter between the invading bacteria on the one hand and the leucocytes of the tissues on the other. The success or failure of the leucocytes in protecting the animal against infection depends, according to this doctrine, entirely upon the efficiency of the means possessed by them for destroying bacteria. When these means are of sufficient vigor to bring about the death of the bacteria, the tissues are victorious, but when the poisons generated by the bacteria are potent to arrest the phagocytic action of the leucocytes, then the tissues succumb and infection results.

Has this doctrine of phagocytosis, as advanced by Metchnikoff, stood the test of experimental criticism? Evidence that has accrued since the time of its suggestion has rendered questionable the advisability of its general application.

The first severe blow that this theory received was given by Nuttall,¹ in his work upon the anti-bacterial action of the animal economy. In these experiments

¹ Zeitschrift für Hygiene, vol. iv., 1888.

Nuttall showed positively that the part played by the leucocytes was not essential to the destruction of virulent bacteria in the blood of animals, but that the serum of the blood, when quite free from cellular elements, possessed this power to a degree equal to that of the blood when all the constituent parts were present. In the blood, as such, phagocytosis could be seen, but, as a rule, the bacteria presented evidence of having undergone degenerative changes before they had been taken up by the wandering cells.

Contrary to the notions in existence at the time, Traube and Gscheidlen,¹ as far back as 1874, demonstrated that considerable quantities of septic material could be injected into the circulating blood without apparently any effect upon the animal. As a result of these experiments, the question that naturally presented itself was: Does the animal organism possess the power of rendering septic organisms inert, and if so, to what extent? Their further work showed that appreciable numbers of living bacteria could be injected into the circulation of warm-blooded animals without producing any noticeable effect. Particularly was this the case with dogs. If they injected into the circulation of a dog as much as 1.5 c.cm. of decomposing fluid, the blood drawn from the animal after from twenty-four to forty-eight hours showed no especial tendency to decompose, though it was kept under observation for a long time. They believed this power, of rendering living organisms inert, to be possessed by the circulating blood to only a limited degree, for, after the injection of much larger amounts of the putrid fluid into the blood of the animal, death usually e

¹ Jahresbericht der Schlesischen Ges. für Cultur, 1874
18*

from twenty-four to forty-eight hours. The blood drawn from the animal just before death contained the living bacteria of putrefaction, and underwent decomposition. They attributed the germicidal phenomenon to the action of the "ozonized oxygen of the corpuscles of the blood."

In 1882 Rauschenbach¹ demonstrated that, in the process of coagulation, fibrin was formed not as a specific product of the action of the colorless elements of the blood alone, but also as a result of the combined action between all animal protoplasm and healthy blood-plasma, and that in the process there was always a disintegration of the leucocytes that were present. In 1884 Groth² demonstrated further that such a disintegration of leucocytes occurred in normal circulating blood, though here it was not accompanied by coagulation. The results of these observations suggested the question: Does such a disintegration occur when *vegetable* protoplasm is introduced into the blood? For the purpose of answering this question, Grohmann,³ a pupil of Alexander Schmidt, undertook to study the action of the circulating blood upon the vegetable protoplasm of bacteria.

He noticed that clotting of the blood of the horse was very much accelerated by the addition to it of certain bacteria, and that at the same time the development of the bacteria was checked, and in the case of the pathogenic varieties their virulence was diminished.

¹ Ueber die Wechselwirkung zwischen Protoplasma und Blutplasma. Dissertation, Dorpat, 1882.

² Ueber die Schicksale der farblosen Elemente in kreisendem Blut. Dissertation, Dorpat, 1884.

³ Ueber die Einwirkung des zellenfreien Blutplasma auf einige pflanzliche Mikro-organismen. Dissertation, Dorpat, 1884.

This was particularly the case when the anthrax bacillus was employed.

Grohmann seems to have appreciated the significance of this observation, though he took no steps to study it more closely. He remarks that the system probably possesses, in the plasma of the blood, a body having disinfectant properties (*loc. cit.*, pp. 6 and 33). This work, however, was not conducted according to the more exact methods of modern bacteriological research, so that the complete demonstration of this phenomenon must be attributed to Nuttall.

Since the publication of Nuttall's work his results have received confirmation from all sides. Fodor,¹ Buchner,² Lubarsch,³ Nissen,⁴ Stern,⁵ Prudden,⁶ Charrin and Roger,⁷ and others have continued in the same line, and have all made practically the same observation.

After the demonstration by Nuttall that the serum of the blood was directly detrimental to the vitality of certain pathogenic bacteria, it became the work of a number of investigators to determine to which element of the serum this property is due, or if it is a function of the serum only as a whole.

In the course of Buchner's experiments it was demonstrated that the serum was robbed of this power by an exposure to a temperature of 55° C. for half an hour; that its efficacy as a germicide was not diminished by alternate freezing and thawing; that by dialysis

¹ Centr. f. Bakteriologie u. Parasitenkunde, 1890, vol. vii., No. 24.

² Archiv für Hygiene, 1890, vol. x, parts 1 and 2.

³ Centr. f. Bakt. u. Parasitenkunde, 1899, vol. vi., No. 18.

⁴ Zeitschr. für Hygiene, 1899, vol. vi, part 3.

⁵ Zeitschr. für klin. Med., 1899, vol. viii, parts 1 and 2.

⁶ N. Y. Med. Record, 1896, vol. xxxvii., pp. 85, 86.

⁷ Soc. de Tr.

or extreme dilution with distilled water, its germicidal activity was diminished, or completely checked; but that an equal dilution could be made, if sodium chloride solution (0.6–0.7 per cent.) was substituted for the distilled water, without the bactericidal action of the serum losing any of its power. From this he concluded that the active element in this phenomenon is a living albumin, an essential constituent of which is sodium chloride, and which, when robbed of this salt, either by dialysis or dilution, becomes inert in its behavior toward bacteria.

He found, moreover, that the activity of the serum alone against bacteria was greater than when the cellular elements of the blood were present. This he explains by the assumption that in the serum alone the germicidal element predominates, whereas in the blood, as such, outside of the body, it is still present, but is overbalanced by the nutrition offered by the disintegrated cellular elements; so that here the nutritive element is most conspicuous, and the destructive activity toward bacteria is less effectual.

A closer study of the nature of this germicidal element in the body of animals was made by Hankin and Martin.¹ The former isolated from the spleen and lymphatic glands a body—a globulin—which in solution possesses germicidal properties.

Similar germicidal, ferment-like globulins have been isolated from the blood by Ogata,² and in their studies upon tetanus Tizzoni and Cattani³ found a body that was antagonistic to the poison produced by the organism of this disease.

¹ British Medical Journal, May 31, 1890.

² Centr. f. Bakt. u. Parasitenkunde, 1891, vol. ix., p. 599.

³ Ibid., p. 685.

Hankin believes the globulins or "defensive proteids" that he has discovered and the albuminoid bodies studied by Buchner to be identical. The most interesting and, in the light of work that has appeared since, the most important, of Hankin's observations were not those upon the power of these globulins to destroy the vitality of living organisms, but rather those upon the relation between them and the poisonous proteid products of the organisms. For example, if the poisonous products of virulent anthrax bacilli be isolated and mixed with the globulin extracted from normal tissues, the experiments of Hankin showed a directly destructive action on the part of the bacterial products. He found that the amount of poisonous albumose produced by the attenuated anthrax bacilli, that are employed as vaccines, was much less than that produced by the organisms possessing full virulence, and he suggests that perhaps the protective influence of vaccinations that are practised by introducing into the animal the organisms that have been attenuated in virulence is due to a gradual tolerance acquired by the cells of the tissues to the action of the poison when produced in these small quantities; in the same way that a tolerance was acquired by the tissues for the venom of the rattlesnake in the experiments of Sewall,¹ and similar to that following the injection into the tissues of small quantities of hemialbumose, which in large amounts rapidly proves fatal.

Of utmost importance to these studies of the blood and fluids of the body are the experiments of Behring and Kitasato² upon the production of immunity to

¹ *Journal of Physiology*, 1887, vol. viii. p. 203.

² Behring and Kitasato: *Deutsche med. Woch.*, 1890, Bd. xvi. p. 1113.

tetanus. In their studies upon the blood of animals subjected to these experiments it was found that it was not only possible to render animals immune from this disease, but that the serum of the blood of these immunified animals affords immunity when injected into the peritoneal cavity of other animals that had not been so protected; and moreover, that this serum possesses curative powers over the disease after it has, in some cases, been in progress for a time. They found, further, that the serum of animals that had been rendered immune to tetanus, when brought in contact with the poison of tetanus, completely destroyed its poisonous properties, and that the serum from animals or from human beings that do not possess immunity to this disease has no such power.

Another hypothesis in explanation of the immunity acquired by the tissues of the animal organism is that advanced by Buchner,¹ who suggests that in the primary infection, from which the animal has recovered, there has been produced a *reactive change* in the integral cells of the body that enables them to protect themselves against subsequent inroads of the same organism. Though somewhat more vague at first glance than the other theories in regard to this phenomenon, it is, nevertheless, in the light of subsequent research, most probably the correct explanation of the establishment of immunity in many, if not all, cases. Experiments that bear directly upon this idea have demonstrated that, if animals are subjected to injections of the poisonous products of growth of certain virulent bacteria, they respond to this treatment by more or less pro-

¹ Buchner: Eine neue Theorie über Erzielung von Immunität gegen Infektionskrankheiten. Munich, 1883.

nounced constitutional reactions, and that during this period, and for a short time following, they possess protection against the invasion of the virulent bacteria themselves. This observation has, moreover, not been confined to those cases in which injections of the products of growth have been followed by inoculations with the bacteria by which they were produced, but what is still more interesting, and confirmatory of Buchner's view, it is claimed that a sort of protection against certain specific infections can also be afforded to animals by the injection into them of cultures of entirely different species of bacteria, or their products, and that in some cases these are not of necessity of the disease-producing variety. For instance, Emmerich and Mattei¹ claim to have rendered rabbits insusceptible to anthrax through injections into them of cultures of the streptococcus of erysipelas.

This, they claim, is not due to any antagonism between the organisms themselves, for in culture experiments the two organisms grew well together, without any alteration in their pathogenic properties, but rather to the production of a tissue-change by which resistance to the inroads of the virulent bacilli was established. Emmerich and Mattei interpret this "reactive tissue-change" as a power acquired by the integral cells of the body, of eliminating a product that is detrimental to the pathogenic activity of the anthrax bacilli.

Pawlowsky,² who obtained similar results from the introduction into the animal of cultures of the *bacillus prodigiosus*, of *staphylococcus pyogenes aureus*, and of the *micrococcus lanceolatus*, believes them to be due to

¹ Emmerich und Mattei: Fortschritte der Medizin, 1887, p. 633.

² Pawlowski: Virchow's Arch., vol. cviii. p. 494.

the induction of increased energy on the part of the wandering cells, preparing them thus for the more difficult task of destroying the more virulent organisms with which the animal is subsequently to be inoculated.

The experiments of G. and F. Klemperer¹ upon acute fibrinous pneumonia, though too limited in extent to be accepted as conclusive, have, nevertheless, offered a number of most significant suggestions, not only in connection with several obscure features of this disease, but also in relation to the establishment of tissue resistance.

They found but little difficulty in affording immunity to animals that are otherwise susceptible to the pathogenic action of the organisms concerned in the production of this disease,² by the introduction into their tissues of the products of growth of the organisms from which the latter had been separated. The immunity thus produced is seen in some cases to last as long as six months; again it is seen to disappear suddenly in a way not to be explained. It was seen in one case to be hereditary.

The energy of the substance that has the power of affording immunity was seen to be very much increased by subjecting it to temperatures somewhat higher than that at which it was produced by the bacteria. The Klemperers found that if this substance was heated to a temperature of from 41° to 42° C. for three or four days, or to 60° C. for from one to two hours, intravenous injection was followed by complete immunity in from three to four days; whereas, if the

¹ G. and F. Klemperer: Berliner klin. Wochenschr., 1891, Nos. 34 and 35.

² Animals do not, as a rule, present the pneumonic changes seen in human beings. The introduction of the *micrococcus lanceolatus* into their tissues results, in the case of susceptible animals, in the production of septicæmia.

unwarmed material was used, immunity did not appear until fourteen days, and then only after the employment of relatively large amounts. Moreover, when the previously heated products are introduced into the circulation of the animal, the systemic reaction is of but short duration, but if the unwarmed substance is employed, immunity is manifest only after the appearance of considerable elevation of temperature, which lasts for a long time. In explanation of these differences, they suggest that, in the latter case, the high fever that is seen to occur in the animal may serve to replace the warming to which the bacterial products had not previously been subjected, and which is necessary before they are in a position to bring about the condition of immunity. They claim that the bacterial products employed in producing immunity in this case are not, in reality, the immunity-affording substance, but that they are only the agents that bring about in the tissues of the animals alterations that result in the production of *another body* that protects the animal. In support of this, their argument is that several days are necessary for the production of immunity by the introduction into the animal of the bacterial products ; whereas, if the blood-serum of this animal, which is now protected, be introduced into the circulation of another animal, no such delay is seen, but instead, the animal is forthwith protected. In the former case the actual protecting body had first to be manufactured by the tissues ; whereas, in the second it is already prepared, and is introduced as such into the second animal.

They found the serum of immunified animals to be not only capable of rendering

immune, but that

it possessed curative powers when the disease is already in progress. The serum of immunified animals, when injected into the circulation of animals in which this form of infection was in progress, and in which there was a body-temperature of from 40.4° to 41° C., reduced this temperature to normal (37.5° C.) in twelve consecutive experiments during the first twenty-four hours following its employment.

In their opinion, the crisis, seen in pneumonia in human beings, indicates the moment at which the poisonous products, manufactured by the bacteria located in the lungs, are present in the circulation in amounts sufficient to call forth in the tissues the reactive change that results in the production of the *antidotal* substance that has the power of rendering the poisons inert.

At the time of the crisis in pneumonia the bacteria themselves are in no way affected. They remain in the lungs, and can be detected, in full vigor and virulence, in the sputum of patients a long time after the disease is cured. They have lost none of their power of producing poisonous products, and still possess their original pathogenic relations toward susceptible animals. It is only after the crisis that their poisons are neutralized by this antidotal proteid that has been eliminated by the cells of the tissues, and as this occurs the systemic manifestations gradually disappear. The Klemperers claim to have isolated from cultures of the *micrococcus lanceolatus* a proteid body that is the agent concerned in producing the tissue-reaction which results in the formation of the protecting substance. They likewise isolated from the serum of immunified animals a proteid that possesses the same powers as the serum itself—viz., of affording immunity and curing the disease.

Here, again, it appears that the processes of infection and immunity are chemical in their nature, the active poisons of the invading organisms—"the pneumotoxines"—being instrumental in producing the diseased condition, while the antidotal or resisting body of the tissues—"the anti-pneumotoxine"—is the agent by which the poison is neutralized.

Results in general analogous to those of G. and F. Klemperer have also been obtained by Emmerich and Fowitzky.¹

In the light of these experiments, the hypothesis advanced by Buchner, that the establishment of immunity is to be explained by reactive changes in the integral cells of the body, receives additional support, and when we consider the observations of Bitter,² who found that in protective vaccinations against anthrax the vaccines do not disseminate themselves through the body, as is the case when the virulent organisms are introduced, but remain at the point of inoculation, and from this point produce, by the absorption of their chemical products, the systemic changes through which the animal is protected against subsequent infection by the virulent organisms, we feel justified in concluding that the weight of evidence is strongly in favor of this view.

The experiments that have been cited afford but an imperfect idea of the enormous amount of work that has been done upon these important subjects; they may, however, serve to indicate the direction in which the lines of research have been laid. As a result of such investigations, our knowledge upon infection and immunity may at present be summarized about as follows:

¹ Emmerich and Fowitzky.

² Bitter: *Zeitschr.*

med. Wochenschr., 1891, No. 32.

7.

1. That infection may be considered as a contest between bacteria and living tissues, conducted on the part of the former by means of the poisonous products of their growth, and resisted by the latter through the agency of proteid bodies normally present in and eliminated by their integral cells.

2. That when infection occurs it may be explained either by the excess of vigor of the bacterial products over the antidotal or protective proteids eliminated by the tissues, or to some cause that has interfered with the normal activity and production of these bodies.

3. That immunity is most frequently seen to follow the introduction into the body of the products of growth of bacteria that in some way or other have been modified. This modification may be artificially produced in the products themselves of virulent organisms, and then introduced into the tissues of the animal; or the virulent bacteria may be so treated that they are no longer virulent, and when introduced into the body of the animal will eliminate poisons of a much less vigorous nature than would otherwise be the case.

4. That immunity following the introduction of bacterial products into the tissues is not in all cases the result of the permanent presence of these substances, *per se*, in the tissues, or to a tolerance acquired by the tissues to them, but is probably, in certain instances, due to the formation in the tissues of another body that acts as a protecting antidote to the poisonous products of invading organisms.

5. That this protective proteid that is eliminated by the cells of the tissues need not of necessity be antagonistic to the life of the invading organisms themselves,

but in some cases must be looked upon more as an antidote to their poisonous products.

6. That in the serum of the normal circulating blood of many animals there exists a substance that is capable, outside of the body, of rendering inert bacteria that, if introduced into the body of the animal, would prove infective.

7. That phagocytosis, though frequently observed, is not essential to the establishment of immunity, but is more probably a secondary process, the bacteria being taken up by the leucocytes only after having been modified in virulence through the normal germicidal activity of the serum of the blood and of other fluids in the body.

8. That, of the hypotheses that exist for the explanation of immunity, the one which assumes acquired immunity to be due to reactive changes on the part of the tissues has received the greatest support.



CHAPTER XXVII.

Bacteriological study of water—Methods employed—Precautions to be observed—Apparatus used, and methods of using them—Methods of investigating air and soil.

THE conditions that favor the epidemic outbreak of typhoid fever, Asiatic cholera, and other maladies of which these may be taken as types, have served as a subject for discussion by sanitarians for a long time.

Of the hypotheses that have been advanced in explanation of the existence and dissemination of these diseases, two stand pre-eminent and are worthy of consideration. They are the "ground-water" theory of Von Pettenkofer and his pupils, and the "drinking-water" theory of the school of bacteriologists of which Koch stands at the head.

The adherents to the "ground-water" view explain the presence of these diseases in epidemic form through alterations in the soil resulting from fluctuations in the level of the soil water, and assign to the drinking-water either a very insignificant *rôle*, or, as is most frequently the case, ignore it entirely. On the other hand, those who have been instrumental in developing the drinking-water hypothesis, claim that alterations in the soil play little or no part in favoring the appearance of these diseases in a neighborhood, but that, as a rule, they appear as a result of direct infection through the use of waters that are contaminated with materials containing the specific organisms known to be the cause of them.

As a result of many observations on both sides of the

question, the evidence is greatly in favor of the opinion that polluted drinking-water is primarily the underlying cause of these epidemics, and this too, very often, when the state of the soil water, in the light of the "ground-water" hypothesis, is just the reverse of what it should be in order to render it answerable for them. It is manifest, therefore, that the careful bacteriological study of water intended for domestic use is of the greatest importance, and should be a routine procedure in all communities receiving their water supply from sources that are liable to pollution.

The object aimed at in such investigations should be to determine if the water approaches constancy in the number and kind of bacteria contained in it—for all waters, except deep ground water, contain bacteria; if sudden fluctuations in the number of bacteria occur in these waters, and if so, to what they are due; and finally, and most important, Does the water contain constantly, or at irregular periods, bacteria that can be traced to human excrement, not of necessity pathogenic varieties, but bacteria that are known to be present normally in the intestinal canal? For, if conditions are favorable to the presence of these varieties the same conditions would favor the admission to the water of other forms of bacteria that are concerned in the production of diseases in the intestines.

In considering water from a bacteriological standpoint, it must always be borne in mind that comparisons with any general fixed standard are not of much value, for just as normal waters from different sources are seen to present variations in their chemical composition, without being unfit for use, so may the number of bacteria per volume in water from one source be always

greater or smaller than in that from another, and yet no difference may be seen to result from their employment. For this reason the proper study of any water, from this point of view, should begin with the establishment of what may be called its normal mean number of bacteria, as well as the character of the prevailing species; and in order to do this the investigations must cover a long period of time through all the seasonal variations of weather. From data obtained in this way it may be possible to predict approximately the normal bacteriological condition of water at any season. Marked deviations from these "means," either in the quantity or quality of the organisms present, can then be considered as indicative of the existence of some unusual disturbing element, the nature of which should be investigated. Similarly, it is impossible to formulate an opinion of much value from a single chemical analysis of a water, for the results thus obtained indicate only the state of the water at the time the sample was procured, and give no indication as to whether it differed at that time from its usual condition, or from the normal condition of the water throughout the immediate neighborhood.

The interpretation of the results of both chemical and bacteriological analysis of a sample of water acquires its full nature only through comparison, either with "means" that have been determined for this water, or with the results of simultaneous analyses of a number of samples from the other sources of supply of the locality.

The aid of the bacteriologist is frequently sought in connection with investigations upon waters that are supposed to be concerned in the production of disease, particularly typhoid fever, either in isolated cases or in

widespread epidemic outbreaks, and almost as often do reliable bacteriologists fail to detect the bacillus that is the cause of typhoid fever in these waters.

The failure to find the organisms of typhoid fever in water by the usual methods of analysis does not by any means prove that they are not present or have not been present. The means that are ordinarily employed in the work admit of such a very small volume of water being used in the test that we can readily understand how these organisms might be present in moderate numbers and yet none of them be included in the drop or two of the water that are taken for study. The conditions are not those of a *solution*, each drop of which contains exactly as much of the dissolved material as do all other drops of equal volume, but are rather those of a *suspension* in each drop or volume of which the number of *suspended* particles are liable to the greatest degree of variation. Furthermore, there are other reasons that would, *a priori*, preclude our expecting to find the typhoid bacilli in water in which we may have reason to believe they had been deposited, viz., attention is not usually directed to the water until the presence of the disease has become conspicuous, usually in from three to four weeks after the time when the pollution probably occurred. Three or four weeks is ordinarily sufficient time for the delicate, non-resistant bacillus of typhoid fever to succumb to the unfavorable conditions under which it finds itself in water. By unfavorable conditions is meant the absence of suitable nutrition; unfavorable temperature; probably the antagonistic influence of more ~~hardy~~ saprophytic bacteria, particularly the so-called "*via*," and of more highly organized water mechanical

precipitation; and of great importance, the disinfecting action of direct sunlight.

Though it is so rare as to be almost never, that typhoid bacilli are found in drinking-water, it must, nevertheless, not be supposed that bacteriological analyses of suspicious waters shed no light upon the existence of pollution and the suitability or non-suitability of the water for drinking purposes.

In the normal intestinal tract of all human beings, and many other mammals, as well as associated with the specific disease-producing bacterium in the intestines of typhoid fever patients, is an organism that is frequently found in polluted drinking-waters, and whose presence is proof positive of pollution by either normal or diseased intestinal contents; and though efforts may result in failure to detect the specific bacillus of typhoid fever, the finding of the other organism, *the bacterium coli commune*, justifies one in expressing the opinion that the water under consideration has been polluted by intestinal evacuations from either human beings or animals. Waters so located as to be liable to such pollution can never be considered as other than a continuous source of danger to those using them.

Another point to be remembered is in connection with the value of chlorine as indicative of contamination by human excrement. It is commonly taught that an excessive amount of chlorine in water points to contamination by human excreta. This may or may not be true according to circumstances. A high proportion of this substance in a sample of water from a locality the neighboring waters of which are poor in chlorine, is unquestionably a suspicious indication, but

in a district close to the sea or near salt deposits, for instance, where the water generally is high in chlorine, the value of the indications thus afforded is very much diminished unless the amount found in the sample under examination greatly exceeds the normal "mean," previously determined, for the amount of chlorine in the waters of the neighborhood.

A striking example of such a condition as the latter recently occurred in the experience of the writer while inspecting a group of water supplies on the east coast of Florida. In each instance the water was obtained from properly protected artesian wells, ranging from 200 to 400 feet deep, and located within a few hundred yards of the sea. The first sample that was subjected to chemical analysis revealed such an unusually high proportion of chlorine that, had this sample alone been considered, the opinion that it was polluted by human excreta might have been advanced. To prevent such an error samples of water from a number of wells in the neighborhood were examined, and they were all found to contain from ten to twelve times the amount of chlorine that ordinarily appears in inland waters, the excess being evidently due to leakage through the soil into the wells of water from the sea. In short, the presence of an excess of chlorine in water, while often indicating pollution from human evacuations, may, nevertheless, sometimes arise from other sources, but the presence in water of bacteria normally found in the intestinal canal can manifestly admit of but one interpretation, viz., that fecal matters have at some time and place been deposited in this water, and that while no specific disease-producing organisms may have been detected, still, water

pollutions are possible are a constant menace to the health of those who use them for domestic purposes.

A sudden variation from the normal, mean number of bacteria, or from the normal chemical composition of a water, calls at once for a thorough inspection of the supply, while at the same time the characters of the organisms present are to be subjected to the most careful study.

THE QUALITATIVE BACTERIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF WATER.—The qualitative bacteriological analysis of water entails much labor, as it requires not only that all the different species of organism found in the water should be isolated, but that each representative should be subjected to systematic study, and its pathogenic or non-pathogenic properties determined.

For this purpose the methods for the isolation of individual species, which have already been described, and the means of studying these species when isolated, are indispensable.

For this analysis certain precautions essential to accuracy are always to be observed.

The sample is to be collected under the most rigid precautions that will exclude organisms from sources other than that under consideration. If drawn from a spigot, it should never be collected until the water has been flowing for fifteen to twenty minutes in a full stream. If obtained from a stream or a spring, it should be collected, not from the surface, but rather from about one foot beneath the surface.

It should always be collected in vessels which have previously been thoroughly freed from all dirt and organic particles, and then sterilized. And the plates

should be made as quickly as possible after collecting the sample.

Where circumstances permit, all water analyses should be made on the spot at which the sample is taken, as it is known that during transportation, unless the samples are kept packed in ice, a multiplication of the organisms contained in it always occurs.

For the purpose of qualitative analysis it is necessary that a small portion of the water—one, two, three, five drops—should first be employed as the amounts from which plates are to be made. In this way one forms some idea as to the approximate number of organisms in the water, and can, in consequence, determine the amount of water necessary to use for each set of plates. Duplicate plates are always to be made—one set upon agar-agar, which are to be kept in the incubator at body temperature, and one set upon gelatin, to be kept at from 18° to 20° C.

As soon as the colonies have developed the plates are to be carefully compared and studied. It is to be noted if any difference in the appearance of the organisms on corresponding plates exists, and if so, to what is it due? It is to be particularly noted which plates contain the greater number of colonies, those kept at the higher or those at the lower temperature. In this way the temperature best suited for the growth of the majority of these organisms may be determined.

As a rule, the greater number of colonies appears upon the gelatin plates that are kept at 18° to 20° C., and from this it would seem that many of the normal water bacteria do not find the higher temperature so favorable to their development as do the organisms not naturally present in water, particularly the pathogenic varieties.

NOTE.—In determining if the organisms found are possessed of pathogenic properties, in what way will your tests be influenced by this observation?

From recent investigations upon this subject it appears that the difference in behavior toward heat of bacteria present in water may have a very important application. Dr. Theobald Smith, of Washington, has recently suggested a method by which it is easily possible to isolate, from waters in which they are present, certain organisms that are of the utmost importance in influencing our judgment upon the fitness of the water for domestic use. By the addition of small quantities, one, two, or three drops of the suspicious water to fermentation tubes (see article on Fermentation Tube) containing bouillon to which 2 per cent. of glucose has been added, and keeping them at the temperature of the body, 37° to 38° C., the growth of the intestinal bacteria that may be present in the water is favored, while that of the water organisms is not; in consequence, after from thirty-six to forty-eight hours the fermentation, characteristic of most of these organisms, is evidenced by the accumulation of gas in the closed end of the tube. From these tubes the growing bacteria can then be easily isolated by the plate method, and it will not be infrequent to find intestinal bacteria present in pure culture.

Another method for the same object is to collect a sample of about 100 c.c. of the water to be tested in a sterilized flask, and add to this about 25 c.c. of sterilized bouillon of four times the usual strength. This is then placed in the incubator at 37° to 38° C., for thirty-six to forty-eight hours, after which plates are

to be made from it in the usual way ; the results will often be a pure culture of some single organism, either one of the intestinal variety or a closely allied species. By a method analogous to the latter the spirillum of Asiatic cholera has been isolated from water ; and by taking advantage of the effect of elevated temperature upon the bacteria of water, Dr. Vaughan, of Michigan, has succeeded in isolating from suspicious waters a group of organisms very closely allied to the bacillus of typhoid fever.

THE QUANTITATIVE ESTIMATION OF BACTERIA IN WATER.—Quantitative analysis requires more care in the measurement of the exact volume of water employed, for the results are to be expressed in terms of the number of individual organisms to a definite volume. The necessity for making the plates at the place at which the sample is collected is to be particularly accentuated in this analysis, for the multiplication of the organisms during transit is so great that the results of analyses made after the water has been in a vessel for a day or two are often very different from those that would have been obtained on the spot.

NOTE.—Inoculate a tube containing about ten cubic centimetres of sterilized distilled or tap water with a very small quantity of a solid culture of some one of the organisms with which you have been working, taking care that none of the culture medium is introduced into the water-tube and that the bacteria are evenly distributed through it. Make plates at once, and on each succeeding day, from this tube, and determine by counts whether there is an increase in the number of organisms—i. e., if

growing or dying. Represent the results graphically, and it will be noticed that in many cases there is at first, during the first three or four days, a multiplication, after which there is a rapid diminution; and, if the organism does not form spores, usually complete death in from ten to twelve days. This is not true for all organisms, but does hold for many.

Where it is not convenient, however, to make the analysis on the spot, the sample of water should be collected and packed in ice and kept on ice until ready for use, which should in all cases be as soon after its collection as possible.

For the collection of water for this purpose, a convenient vessel to be employed is a glass bulb (Fig. 87) or balloon, which one soon learns to make for oneself from glass tubing.

FIG. 87.



Glass bulb for collecting samples of water.

It consists simply of a round glass sphere blown on the end of a glass tube, which latter is subsequently drawn out into a fine capillary stem and sealed while hot. As it cools, the contraction of the air within the bulb results in the production of a negative pressure. If the point of the stem be broken off under water, the water is pressed up into the bulb, because of the existence of the negative pressure within. The negative pressure obtained in this way is frequently not sufficient to permit of the bulb being completely filled, and often only a few drops of fluid can be obtained. To obviate this the

bulbs may be blown and allowed to cool, but not sealed. After a sufficient number of them are prepared they are taken, one at a time, and gently warmed over the flame; while still warm the extremity of the stem is dipped into distilled water and held there until a few drops have passed up into the bulb; this is then carefully boiled, or rather, *completely vaporized*, over the flame, and while the steam is still escaping the point is sealed in the gas flame. All air will have thus been replaced by water vapor, and if the point of the stem be now broken off under water the bulb will fill quickly and completely. It is not desirable to fill them *completely*, but rather to only about three-fourths of their capacity, as when *full* it is difficult to empty them without contaminating the contents. They are emptied by *gently* warming over a gas or alcohol flame.

A number of them may be made, sealed, and kept on hand. They are sterile so long as they are sealed, because of the heat that is employed in their manufacture.

When a sample of water is to be taken, the point of a bulb is simply broken off with sterilized forceps under water at the place from which the sample is to be procured and held there until the necessary amount has been obtained. This may serve as a sample from which to prepare plates or Esmarch tubes on the spot, or the tip of the stem may be resealed in the flame of an alcohol lamp, the bulb packed in ice, and transported in this condition to the laboratory.

Another very simple and useful device for collecting water samples is that recommended by Kirschner. It consists of a piece of glass tubing of about 5 or 6 mm. inside diameter and 36 cm. long. of a

U, with either extremity of the arms bent again at right angles in the same place and drawn out to a point and sealed. They are sterilized in the flame as they are made. The sample is collected by breaking off both points, immersing one of them into the water and sucking on the other until the tube is filled. Then both points are again sealed in the flame and the tube packed in ice. The objection to this tube is the danger of contaminating its contents with saliva during the act of filling by suction, though this danger is not so great as might at first appear, as we shall learn in our efforts to cultivate bacteria from the mouth cavity.

NOTE.—Make cover-slips from your own mouth; make plates on both gelatin and agar-agar, at the same time. Compare the number of bacteria found by microscopic examination of the cover-slips with the number of colonies that develop on the plates.

In beginning the quantitative analysis of water with which one is not acquainted, there are certain preliminary steps that are essential.

It is necessary to know approximately the number of organisms contained in any fixed volume, so as to determine the quantity of water to be employed for the plates or tubes. This is usually done by making preliminary plates from one drop, two drops, 0.25 c.c., 0.5 c.c., and 1 c.c. of the water. After each plate has been labelled with the amount of water used in making it, it is placed aside for development. When this has occurred, one selects the plate upon which the colonies are only moderate in number—about 200 to 300 colonies presenting—and employs in the subsequent

analysis the same amount of water that was used in making this plate.

If the original water contained so many organisms that there developed on a plate or tube made with one drop too many colonies to be easily counted, then the sample must be diluted with one, ten, twenty-five, fifty, or one hundred volumes, as the case may require, of sterilized distilled water. This dilution must be *accurate*, and its exact extent noted, so that subsequently the number of organisms per volume in the original water may be calculated.

The use of a drop is not sufficiently accurate. The dilution should therefore always be to a degree that will admit of the employment of a volume of water that may be exactly measured, 0.25, 0.5 c.c. being the amounts most convenient for use.

Duplicate plates should always be made and the mean of the number of colonies that develop upon them taken as the basis from which to calculate the number of organisms per volume in the original water.

For example: From a sample of water, 0.25 c.c. is added to a tube of liquefied gelatin, carefully mixed and poured out as a plate. When development occurs, the number of colonies are too numerous to be accurately counted. One cubic centimetre of the original water is then to have added to it, under precautions that prevent contamination from without, 99 c.c. of sterilized distilled water—that is, we have now a dilution of 1 : 100. Again, 0.25 c.c. of this dilution is plated and we find 180 colonies on the plate. Assuming that each colony develops from an individual bacterium, though this is perhaps not strictly true, we had 180 organisms in 0.25 c.c. of our 1 : 100 dilution, therefore in 0.25

c.c. of the original water we had $180 \times 100 = 18,000$ bacteria, which will be 72,000 bacteria per cubic centimetre ($0.25 = 18,000$, $1 \text{ c.c.} = 18,000 \times 4 = 72,000$). The results are always to be expressed in terms of the number of bacteria per cubic centimetre of the original water.

Another point of very great importance (already mentioned) is the effect of temperature upon the number of colonies of bacteria that will develop on plates made from water. It must always be remembered that a larger number of colonies appear on gelatin plates made from water and kept at 18° to 20° C. than on agar-agar plates kept in the incubator. The following table, illustrative of this point, gives the results of parallel analyses of the same waters, the one series of counts having been made upon gelatin plates at the ordinary temperature of the room, the other upon plates of agar-agar kept for the same length of time in the incubator at from 37° to 38° C. It will be seen from the table that much the larger number of colonies, *i. e.*, much higher results, are always obtained when gelatin is employed. The importance of this point in the quantitative bacteriological analysis of water is too apparent to require further comment.

TABLE ILLUSTRATING THE PROPORTION BETWEEN THE RESULTS OBTAINED BY THE USE OF GELATIN AND AGAR-AGAR IN QUANTITATIVE BACTERIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF WATER. RESULTS RECORDED ARE THE NUMBER OF COLONIES THAT DEVELOPED FROM THE SAME AMOUNT OF WATER IN EACH SERIES.¹

NUMBER OF COLONIES FROM WATER THAT DEVELOPED UPON—

Gelatin plates at 16° to 20° C.	Agar-agar plates at 37° to 38° C.
310	170
280	140
310 }	180
340 }	160
650 }	210
630 }	320
380 }	290
400 }	210
1000 }	100
890 }	130
340 }	280
370 }	210
490 }	110
580 }	100

Throughout this part of the work it is to be borne in mind that when one refers to plates it is not to a set, as in the isolation experiments, but to a single plate.

METHOD OF COUNTING THE COLONIES ON PLATES.—For convenience in counting colonies on plates or in tubes, it is customary to divide the whole area of the gelatin occupied by colonies into smaller areas, and either count all the colonies in each of these areas and add the several sums together for the total; or to count the number of colonies in each of several areas, ten or twelve, take the mean of the results and multiply this by the number of areas containing colonies.

¹ I am indebted to Dr. James Homer Wright, Thomas Scott Fellow in Hygiene (1892-98), University of Pennsylvania, for the results presented in this table.

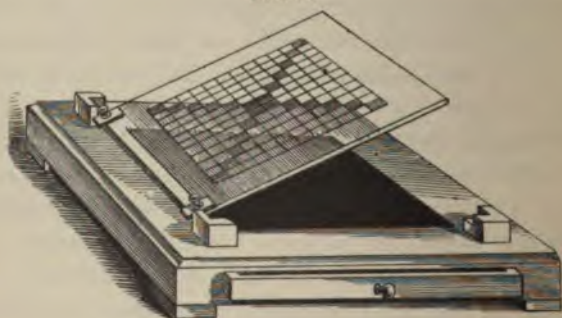
By this latter method, however, the results vary so much in different counts of *the same plate*, that they cannot be considered as more than rough approximations.

NOTE.—Prepare a plate; calculate the number of colonies upon it by this latter method. Now repeat the calculation, making the average from another set of squares. Now actually count the entire number of colonies on the plate. Compare the results.

For facilitating the counting of colonies several very convenient devices exist.

WOLFFHÜGEL'S COUNTING APPARATUS.—This apparatus (Fig. 88) consists of a flat wooden stand, the centre of which is cut out in such a way that either a

FIG. 88.



Wolffhügel's apparatus for counting colonies.

black or white glass plate may be placed in it. These form a background upon which the colonies may more easily be seen when the plate to be counted is placed upon it. When the gelatin plate containing the colo-

nies has been placed upon this background of glass, it is then covered by a transparent glass plate which swings on a hinge. When this plate is in position, it is just above the colonies without touching them. This plate is ruled in square centimetres and subdivisions.

The gelatin plate is moved about until it rests under the centre of the area occupied by the ruled lines.

The number of colonies in each square centimetre is then counted, and the sum-total of the colonies in all these areas gives the number of colonies on the plate.

Where the colonies are quite small, as is frequently the case, the counting may be rendered easier by the use of a small hand-lens.

FIG. 89.



Lens for counting colonies.

In Fig. 89 is seen the form of hand-lens commonly employed.

ESMARCH'S COUNTER. — Esmarch has devised a counter (Fig. 90) for estimating the number of colonies present when they are upon a cylindrical surface, as when in rolled tubes. The principles and methods of estimation are practically the same as those given for Wolffhügel's apparatus. If the number of colonies in an Esmarch tube is to be determined, a simpler method than the use of his apparatus may be employed. It consists in dividing the tube by lines into four or six longitudinal areas which are

reverse

lines drawn about 1 or 2 cm. apart. The lines may be drawn with pen and ink. They need not be exactly the same distance apart, nor exactly straight. Beginning with one of these squares at one end of the tube, which

FIG. 90.



Esnarch's apparatus for counting colonies in roll tubes.

may be marked with a cross, the tube is twisted with the fingers, always in one direction, and the exact number of colonies in each square as it appears in rotation is counted, care being taken not to count a square more than once; the sums are then added together, and the result gives the number of colonies in the tube. This method may be facilitated by the use of a hand-lens.

In all these methods there is one error that is difficult to eliminate: it is assumed that each colony represents the outgrowth from a single organism. This is probably not always the case, as there may exist clumps of bacteria which represent hundreds or even thousands of individuals, but which still give rise to but a single

colony—this is usually estimated as a single organism in the water under analysis.

Where grounds exist for suspecting the presence of these clumps, they may in part be broken up by shaking the original water with sterilized sand.

What has been said for the bacteriological examination of water holds good for all fluids which are to be subjected to this form of analysis.

BACTERIOLOGICAL AIR ANALYSIS.—Quite a number of methods for the bacteriological study of the air exist.

In the main they consist either of allowing air to pass over solid nutrient media (Koch, Hesse) and observing the colonies which develop upon the media, or of filtering the bacteria from the air by means of porous and liquid substances, and studying the organisms thus obtained. (Miguel, Petri, Strauss, Würz, Sedgwick.)

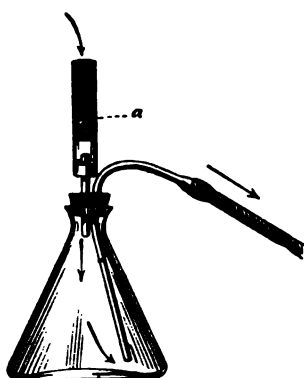
The former methods have given place almost entirely to the latter for reasons of greater exactness possessed by the latter.

In some of the methods which provide for the filtration of bacteria from the air by means of liquid substances, a measured volume of air is aspirated through liquefied gelatin; this is then rolled into an Esmarch tube, and the number of colonies counted, just as was done in the water analysis. This is the simplest procedure. An objection raised against it is that organisms may be lost, and not come into the calculation, by passing through the medium in the centre of an air-bubble without being arrested by the fluid—an objection that appears more of speculative than of real value.

The methods of filtration through porous substances

appear, on the whole, to give the best results. Petri recommends the aspiration of a measured volume of air through glass tubes into which sterilized sand is packed. (Fig. 91.) When the aspiration is finished the sand is mixed with liquefied gelatin; plates are made, and the number of developing colonies counted, the results giving the number of organisms contained in the volume of air aspirated through the sand.

FIG. 91.



Petri's apparatus for bacteriological analysis of air. The tube packed with sand is seen at the point *a*.

The main objection to this method is the possibility of mistaking a sand granule for a colony. This objection has been overcome by Sedgwick, who employs granulated sugar instead of the sand; this, when brought into the liquefied gelatin, dissolves, and no such error as that possible in the Petri method can be made.

SEDGWICK'S METHOD.—On the whole, the method proposed by Sedgwick gives such uniform results that it is to be recommended above the others. It is as follows :

The apparatus employed by him consists essentially of three parts:

- (1) A glass tube of a special form to which the name *aërobioscope* has been given.
- (2) A stout copper cylinder of about sixteen litres capacity, provided with a vacuum-gauge.
- (3) An air-pump.

FIG. 92.



Sedgwick's aërobioscope.

The aërobioscope (Fig. 92) is about 35 cm. in its entire length; it is 15 cm. long and 4.5 cm. in diameter at its expanded part; one end of the expanded part is narrowed down to a neck 2.5 cm. in diameter and 2.5 cm. long. To the other end is fused a glass tube 15 cm. long and 0.5 cm. inside diameter, in which is to be placed the filtering material.

Upon this narrow tube, 5 cm. from the lower end, a mark is made with a file, and up to this mark a small roll of brass-wire gauze (*a*) is inserted; this serves as a stop for the filtering material which is to be placed over it. Beneath the gauze (at *b*), and also at the large end (*c*), the apparatus is plugged with cotton. When thoroughly cleaned, dried, and plugged, the apparatus is to be sterilized in the hot-air sterilizer. When cool, the cotton plug is removed from the large end (*c*), and sterilized No. 50 granulated sugar is poured in until it just fills the 10 cm. (*d*) of the narrow tube above the wire gauze. This column of sugar is the filtering material employed to engage and retain the bacteria.

After pouring in the sugar, the cotton-wool plug is replaced, and the tube is again sterilized at 120° C. for several hours.

Taking the air sample. In order to measure the amount of air used, the value of each degree on the vacuum-gauge is determined in terms of air by means of an air-meter, or by calculation from the known capacity of the cylinder. This fact ascertained, the negative pressure indicated by the needle on exhausting the cylinder shows the volume of air which must pass into it in order to fill the vacuum. By means of the air-pump one exhausts the cylinder until the needle reaches the mark corresponding to the amount of air required.¹

A sterilized aërobioscope is now to be fixed in the upright position and its small end connected by a rubber tube with a stopcock on the cylinder, or to a glass tube tightly fixed in the neck of an aspirating bottle by means of a perforated rubber stopper. The cotton plug is then removed from the upper end of the aërobioscope, and the desired amount of air is aspirated through the sugar. Dust particles and bacteria will be held back by the sugar. During manipulation the cotton plug is to be protected from contamination.

When the required amount of air has been aspirated through the sugar the cotton plug is replaced, and by gently tapping the aërobioscope while held in an almost horizontal position, the sugar, and with it the bacteria, are brought into the large part (e) of the apparatus.

¹ Such a cylinder and air-pump are not necessary. A pair of ordinary aspirating bottles of known capacity graduated into litres and fractions thereof answer perfectly well. Or one can determine by the weight of water that has flowed from the aspirator, the volume of air that has passed in to take its place, i. e., the volume of air that has passed through the aërobioscope.

When all the sugar is thus shaken down into this part of the apparatus, about 20 c.c. of liquefied, sterilized gelatin is poured in through the opening at the end *c*, the sugar dissolves, and the whole is then rolled on ice, just as is done in the preparation of an ordinary Esmarch tube.

FIG. 93.



Bent funnel for use with aërobioscope.

The gelatin is most easily poured into the aërobioscope by the use of a small, sterilized, cylindrical funnel (Fig. 93), the stem of which is bent to an angle of about 110° with the long axis of the body.

The larger part of the aërobioscope is divided into squares to facilitate the counting of the colonies.

By the employment of this apparatus one can make these analyses at any place, and can, without fear of contamination, carry the tubes to the laboratory, where the cultivation part of the work may be done.

Aside from this advantage, the filter being soluble, only the insoluble bacteria are left imbedded in the gelatin.

For general use this method is to be preferred to the others that have been mentioned.

BACTERIOLOGICAL STUDY OF THE SOIL.—Bacteriological study of the soil may be made by either breaking up small particles of earth in liquefied media and making plates directly from this, or by what is perhaps a better method, as it gets rid of insoluble particles which may give rise to errors : breaking up the soil in sterilized water and then making plates immediately from the water.

It must be borne in mind that many of the ground organisms belong to the anaërobic group, so that in these studies this point should be remembered and the methods for the cultivation of such organisms practised in connection with the ordinary methods.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

Methods of testing disinfectants and antiseptics—Experiments illustrating the precautions to be taken—Experiments in skin disinfection.

THERE are several ways of determining the germicidal value of chemical substances, the most common being to expose organisms dried upon bits of silk thread to the disinfectant for different lengths of time, and then, after removing, and carefully washing the threads in water, to place them into nutrient media at a favorable temperature, and notice if any growth appears. If no growth results the disinfection is presumably successful. Another method is to mix fluid cultures of bacteria with the disinfectant in varying proportions, and, after different intervals of time, to determine if disinfection is in progress by transferring a portion of the mixture to nutrient media, just as in the other method of work.

By the former process the bits of thread, usually about 1 to 2 cm. long, are placed in a dry test-tube provided with a cotton plug and carefully sterilized, either by the dry method or in the steam sterilizer, before using. They are then immersed in a pure bouillon culture or in a salt solution suspension of the organism upon which the disinfectant is to be tested. I say pure culture because it is always desirable in testing a new germicide to determine its value as such on several different resistant species of bacteria, both in the vegetating and in the spore state. After the threads have remained in the culture for a period varying from five to

ten minutes they are removed under antiseptic precautions and carefully separated and spread out upon the bottom of a sterilized Petri dish. This is then placed either in the incubator at a temperature not exceeding 38° C. until the excess of fluid has evaporated, or in a desiccator over sulphuric acid, calcium chloride, or any other drying agent, but they are not left there until *absolutely* dry, only until the *excess* of moisture has disappeared. When sufficiently dry they can then be employed in the test. This is done by immersing them in solutions of the disinfectant of different but known strengths for a fixed interval of time, say one or two hours, after which they are removed, rinsed off in sterilized distilled water to remove the excess of disinfectant adhering to them, and placed into fresh, sterilized culture media, which is then placed in the incubator at from 37° to 38° C. If after twenty-four, forty-eight, or seventy-two hours a growth occurs at or about the bit of thread, and this growth consists of the organism upon which the test was made, manifestly there has been no disinfection; if no growth occurs after, at most, ninety-six hours, it is safe to presume that the bacteria have been killed, unless our efforts at rinsing off the excess of disinfectant from the thread have not been successful, and a small amount of disinfectant is now active in preventing development, *i. e.*, is acting as an antiseptic.

By the latter process, in which cultures or suspensions of the organisms are mixed with different but known strengths of the disinfectant, a small portion of the mixture, usually a loopful or a drop, is transferred at the end of a definite time to the fresh medium which is to determine whether the organisms have been killed

or not. This is commonly a tube of fluid agar-agar which is poured out into a Petri dish, allowed to solidify, and placed in the incubator, as in the other experiment.

After the *minimum strength* of disinfectant necessary to destroy the vitality of the organisms with which we are working has been determined, for any fixed time, it then remains for us to decide what is the *shortest time* in which this strength will have the same effect. We then work with a constant dilution of the disinfectant, but with different intervals of exposure—one, five, ten minutes, etc.—until we have decided not only the minimum amount of disinfectant required for the destruction of the bacteria, but the shortest time necessary for this under known conditions.

A factor not to be lost sight of is the temperature under which these experiments are conducted, for it must always be borne in mind that the action of a disinfectant is usually *more energetic* at a *higher* than at a lower temperature.

Now in both of these methods it is easy to see that unless special precautions are taken a minute portion of the disinfectant may be carried along with the thread, or drop, into the medium which is to determine whether the organisms do or do not possess the power of growth, and here have a restraining or antiseptic action. For organisms in their normal condition, that is, those which have never been exposed to the action of a disinfectant, the amount necessary to restrain growth, for certain disinfecting agents, is very small indeed, and for organisms that have already been exposed for a time to such agents this amount is even much less. It is plain, then, that if the test is to be an accurate one, precautions must be taken against admitting the minute trace of disin-

fectant to the medium with which we are to determine if the bacteria that have been exposed to its action have been killed or not.

The precautions that have hitherto been taken for preventing this accident are, where the threads are employed, washing in sterilized distilled water and then in alcohol; or, where the fluid cultures were mixed with the disinfectant in solution, an effort was usually made to dilute the amount of disinfectant carried over, to a point at which it loses its inhibiting power.

While these are sufficient in many cases, they do not answer for all. Certain chemicals have the property of combining so firmly with the threads upon which the bacteria are located as to require other special means of ridding the threads of them; and in solutions in which proteid substances are present along with the bacteria a similar union between them and the disinfectant may likewise take place. In both instances this amount of disinfectant adhering to the silk threads or in combination with the proteids must be gotten rid of, otherwise the results of the test may be fallacious. A partial solution of the problem comes from studies that have been made upon corrosive sublimate in its various applications for disinfecting purposes, and in this connection it has been shown by Shaefer¹ that it is impossible to rid silk threads of the corrosive sublimate adhering to them by simple washing, as the sublimate acts as a mordant and forms a firm union with the tissues of the threads. Braatz² found the same to hold for catgut. For example, he found that catgut which had been immersed in solutions of sublimate gave the

¹ Shaefer: *Berliner klin. Woch.*, 1890, No. 3, p. 50.

² Braatz: *Centr. f. Bakt. und Parasitenkunde*, Bd. viii. No. 1, p. 8.

characteristic reactions of the salt after having been immersed in distilled water, which had been repeatedly renewed, for five weeks.

He remarks that a similar firm combination between sublimate and cotton will take place after a longer time, but it occurs so slowly that it cannot interfere with disinfection experiments in the same way as he believes the employment of silk to act.

The most successful attempt at removing all traces of sublimate from the threads or from the proteid substances in which are located the bacteria whose vitality are to be tested, is that made by Geppert, who subjected them to the action of ammonium sulphide in solution. By this procedure the mercury is converted into insoluble sulphide and does not now have an inhibiting effect upon the growth of those bacteria that may not have succumbed to its action when in the form of sublimate.

In the second method of testing disinfectants, mentioned above—that is, when cultures of bacteria and solutions of the disinfectant are mixed, and after a time a drop of the mixture is removed and added to sterile nutrient media, the inhibiting amount of disinfectant can readily be gotten rid of by dilution, that is to say, instead of transporting the drop directly to the fresh medium, add it to 10 or 12 c.c. of sterilized salt solution (0.6–0.7 per cent. of NaCl in distilled water), or distilled water, and after thoroughly shaking add a drop of *this* to the medium in which the power of development of the bacteria is to be determined.

Another important point to be borne in mind in testing disinfectants is the necessity of so arranging the conditions that each individual organism will be ex-

posed to the action of the agent used. Where clumps of bacteria exist we are not always assured of this, for

only those on the surface of the clump may be affected, while those in the centre of the mass may entirely escape, being protected by those surrounding them. These clumps and minute masses are especially liable to be present in fluid cultures and in suspensions of the bacteria, and must be eliminated before the test is begun, if it is to be made by mixing them with solutions of the agent to be tested. This is best accomplished in the following way: The organisms should be cultivated in bouillon containing sand or finely divided particles of glass; after growing for a sufficient length of time they are then to be shaken thoroughly, in order that all clumps may be mechanically broken up by the sand. The culture is then filtered through a tube containing closely packed glass wool.

The filtration may be accomplished without fear of contamination of the culture by the employment of an Allihin tube, which is practically nothing more than a thick-walled test-tube drawn out to a finer tube at its blunt end so as to convert it into a sort of

cylindrical funnel. The tube when finished and ready for use has the appearance given in Fig. 94.

FIG. 94.



Cylindrical funnel used for filtering cultures on which disinfectants are to be tested.

The whole tube, after being plugged at the bottom of its wide part with glass wool and at its wide open extremity with cotton wool, is placed vertically, small end down, into an Erlenmeyer flask of about 100 c.c. capacity and sterilized in a steam sterilizer for the proper time. It is kept in the covered sterilizer until it is to be used, which should be as soon as possible after sterilization.

The watery suspension or bouillon culture of the organisms is now to be filtered repeatedly through the glass wool into sterilized flasks until a degree of transparency is reached which will permit the reading of moderately fine print through a layer of the fluid of about 2 cm. thick, *i.e.*, through an ordinary test-tube full of it. It can then be subjected to the action of the disinfectant, and, as a rule, the results are far more uniform than when no attention is paid to the existence of clumps. It is hardly necessary to say that in the practical employment of disinfectants outside the laboratory no such precautions are taken, but in laboratory work, where it is desirable to determine *exactly* the value of different substances as germicides, all the precautions that have been mentioned will be found essential to success.

In determining the germicidal value of different chemical agents upon certain pathogenic bacteria, susceptible animals are sometimes inoculated with the organisms after they have been exposed to the disinfectant. If no pathological condition results, disinfection is presumed to have been successful, while if the condition characteristic of the activities of the given organism in the tissues of this animal appears, the reverse is the case. The objections to this method that have been mentioned

are: "*First.* The test organisms may be modified as regards reproductive activity without being killed; and in this case a modified form of the disease may result from the inoculation, of so mild a character as to escape observation. *Second.* An animal that has suffered this modified form of the disease enjoys protection, more or less perfect, from future attacks, and if used for a subsequent experiment may, by its immunity from the effects of the pathogenic test organism, give rise to the mistaken assumption that this had been destroyed by the action of the germicidal agent to which it had been subjected." (Sternberg.)

DETERMINATION OF ANTISEPTIC PROPERTIES.

In this test sterile media are employed and are usually arranged in two groups: the one to remain normal in composition and to serve as controls, while to the other is to be added the substance to be tested in different but known strengths. It is customary to employ test-tubes each containing an exact amount of bouillon, gelatin, or agar-agar, as the case may be. To each tube a definite amount of the antiseptic is added, and if it is not of a volatile nature or not injured by heat, they may then be sterilized. After this they are to be inoculated with the organism upon which the test is to be made, and at the same time one of the "control" tubes (one of those to which no antiseptic has been added) is inoculated. They are all then to be placed in the incubator and kept under observation. If at the end of twenty-four, forty-eight, or seventy-two hours no growth appears in any but the "control" tubes, it is evident that the antiseptic must be added in smaller

amounts, for we are to determine the point at which it *is not* as well as that at which it *is* capable of preventing development. The experiment is then repeated, using smaller amounts of the antiseptic until we reach a point at which growth just occurs notwithstanding the presence of the antiseptic, and its antiseptic strength falls a trifle above the amount present in this tube. If, for example, there was development in the tubes in which the antiseptic was present in the proportion of 1:1000 and no growth in the one in which it was present in 1:1400, the experiment would be repeated with strength of the antiseptic corresponding to 1:1000, 1:1100, 1:1200, 1:1300, 1:1400, and in this way one gradually strikes the point at which growth is *just* prevented. This point represents the antiseptic value of the substance used for the organism upon which it has been tested.

EXPERIMENTS.

Into each of three tubes containing 10 c.c.—one of normal salt solution, another of bouillon, a third of fluid blood-serum—add as much of a culture of the staphylococcus pyogenes aureus as can be held upon the looped platinum needle. Mix this thoroughly, so that no clumps exist, and then add exactly 10 c.c. of 1:500 solution of corrosive sublimate. Mix it thoroughly, and at the end of three minutes transfer a drop from each tube into a tube of liquefied agar-agar, and pour this into a Petri dish. Label each dish carefully and place them in the incubator. Are the results the same in all the plates? How are the differences to be explained? To what strength of the disinfectant were the organisms exposed in the experiment?

Into each of two tubes containing 10 c.c.—the one of normal salt solution, the other of bouillon—add as much of a spore-containing culture of anthrax bacilli as can be held upon the loop of the platinum wire. Mix this thoroughly so that no clumps exist, and then add exactly 10 c.c. of a 1:500 solution of corrosive sublimate. Mix thoroughly and at the end of five minutes transfer a drop from each tube into a tube of liquefied agar-agar. Pour this immediately into a Petri dish. Label each dish carefully and place them in the incubator. Note the results at the end of twenty-four, forty-eight, and seventy-two hours. How do you explain them?

Make identically the same experiment with the same spore-containing culture of anthrax bacilli, except that the drop from the mixture is to be transferred to 10 c.c. of a mixture of equal parts of ammonium sulphide and sterilized distilled water. After remaining in this for about half a minute, a drop is to be transferred to a tube of liquefied agar-agar, poured into Petri dishes, labelled, and place in the incubator. Note the results. Do they correspond with those obtained in the preceding experiment? How are the differences explained?

Prepare a 1:1000 solution of corrosive sublimate. To each of twelve tubes containing exactly 10 c.c. of bouillon add: one drop to the first, two drops to the second, and so on until the last tube has had twelve drops added to it. Mix thoroughly and then inoculate each with one wire-loopful of a bouillon culture of *staphylococcus pyogenes aureus*. Place them all in the incubator after carefully labelling them. Note the order in which growth appears.

Do the same with anthrax spores, with spores of *bacillus subtilis*, and with the typhoid bacillus, and see how the results compare. From these experiments what will be the strength of corrosive sublimate necessary to act as an antiseptic under these conditions for the organisms employed?

Make a similar series of experiments, using a five per cent. solution of carbolic acid.

Determine the antiseptic point of the common disinfectants for the organisms with which you are working.

Determine the time necessary for the destruction of the organisms with which you are working, by corrosive sublimate in 1:1000 solution, under different conditions—with and without the presence of albuminous bodies other than the bacteria, and under varying conditions of temperature.

In making these experiments be careful to guard against the introduction of enough sublimate into the agar-agar from which the Petri plate is to be made to inhibit the growth of the organisms which may not have been destroyed by the sublimate. This may be done by transferring two drops from the mixture of sublimate and organisms into not less than 10 c.c. of sterilized salt solution in which they may be thoroughly shaken for from one to two minutes, or into the solution of ammonium sulphide of the strength given.

To 10 c.c. of a bouillon culture of *staphylococcus pyogenes aureus*, or anthrax spores, add 10 c.c. of corrosive sublimate in 1:500 solution, and allow it to remain in contact with the organisms for *only* the time necessary to destroy them.

which this has been determined). Then transfer a drop of the mixture to each of three liquefied agar-agar tubes and pour them into Petri dishes. Place them in the incubator and observe them for twenty-four, forty-eight, and seventy-two hours. No growth occurs. How is this to be accounted for?

At the end of seventy-two hours inoculate all of these plates with a culture of the same organism which has *not been exposed* to sublimate, by taking up bits of the culture on the needle and drawing it across the plates. A growth now results. We have here an experiment in which organisms which have been exposed to sublimate for a *much shorter time* than necessary to destroy them, when transferred directly to a favorable culture medium do not grow, and yet, when the same organism which has not been exposed to sublimate is planted upon the same medium it does grow. How is this to be accounted for?

Skin-disinfection.—With a sterilized knife scrape from the skin of the hands, at the root of the nails and under the nails, small particles of epidermis. Prepare plates from them. Note the results.

Wash the hands carefully for ten minutes in hot water and scrub them during this time with soap and a sterilized brush. Rinse them in hot water. Again prepare plates from scrapings of the skin on the fingers, at the root of the nails, and under the nails. Note the results.

Again, wash as before in hot water with soap and brush, rinse in hot water, then soak the hands for five minutes in 1:1000 corrosive sublimate solution, and, as before, prepare plates from scrapings from the same localities. Note the results.

Repeat this latter procedure in exactly the same way, but before taking the scrapings let someone pour ammonium sulphide over the points from which the scrapings are to be made. After it has been on the hands about three minutes again scrape and note the results upon plates made from the scrapings.

Wash as before in hot water and soap, rinse in clean hot water, immerse for a minute or two in alcohol, after this in 1:1000 sublimate solution, and finally in ammonium sulphide, and then prepare plates from scrapings from the points mentioned.

In what way do the results of these experiments differ one from another?

To what are these differences due?

What have these experiments taught?

In making the above experiments it must be remembered that the strictest care is necessary in order to prevent the access of germs from without into our media. The hand upon which the experiment is being performed must be held away from the body and must not touch any object not concerned in the experiment. The scraping should be done with the point of a knife that has been sterilized in the flame and allowed to cool. The scrapings may be transferred directly from the knife-point to the gelatin by means of a sterilized platinum wire loop.

The brush used should be thoroughly cleansed and always kept in 1:1000 solution of corrosive sublimate. It should be washed in hot water before using.

APPENDIX.

LIST of apparatus and materials required in a beginner's bacteriological laboratory :

MICROSCOPE AND ACCESSORIES.

Microscope with coarse and fine adjustment and heavy, firm base ; Abbe sub-stage condensing system, arranged either as the " simple " or as the regular Abbe condenser, in either case to be provided with iris diaphragm ; objectives equivalent, in the English nomenclature, to about one-fourth inch, and one-sixth inch dry, and one-twelfth inch oil-immersion system ; a triple, revolving nose-piece ; three oculars, varying in magnifying power ; and a bottle of immersion oil.

Glass slides, English shape and size and of colorless glass.

Six slides with depressions in centre of about 6 to 8 mm. in diameter.

Cover-slips, 15 by 15 mm. square and from 0.15 to 0.18 mm. thick.

Forceps. One pair of fine-pointed forceps and one pair of the Cornet pattern, for holding cover-slips.

Platinum needles in glass handles. One straight, of about 4 cm. long ; one looped at one end and of about 4 cm. long ; and one straight of about 4 cm. long.

Glass handles to be of about 3 mm. thickness and from 15 to 17 cm. long.

STAINING AND MOUNTING REAGENTS.

200 c.c. of saturated alcoholic solution of fuchsin.

200 c.c. of saturated alcoholic solution of gentian violet.

200 c.c. of saturated alcoholic solution of methylene-blue.

200 grammes of pure aniline.

200 grammes of C. P. carbolic acid.

500 grammes of C. P. nitric acid.

500 grammes of C. P. sulphuric acid.

200 grammes of C. P. glacial acetic acid.

1 litre of ordinary 93-95 per cent. alcohol.

1 litre of absolute alcohol.

500 grammes of ether.

500 grammes of pure xylol.

50 grammes of Canada balsam dissolved in xylol.

100 grammes of Schering's celloidin.

10 grammes of iodine and 30 grammes of iodide of potassium in substance.

100 grammes of tannic acid.

100 grammes of ferrous sulphate.

Distilled water.

FOR NUTRIENT MEDIA.

4 pound Liebig's or Armour's beef extract.

250 grammes Witte's peptone.

2 kilogrammes of gold label gelatin (Hesteberg's).

100 grammes of agar-agar in substance.

200 grammes of sodium chloride (ordinary table salt).

500 grammes of pure glycerin.

50 grammes of pure glucose.

50 grammes of pure lactose.

100 grammes of caustic potash.

200 c.c. of litmus tincture.

10 grammes of rosolic acid (corallin).

Blue and red litmus paper; curcuma paper.

5 grammes of phenolphthalein in substance.

Filter paper, the quality ordinarily used by druggists.

100 grammes of pyrogallie acid.

1 kilogramme of C. P. granulated zinc.

GLASSWARE.

200 best quality test-tubes, slightly heavier than those sold for chemical work, of about 12 to 13 cm. long and 12 to 14 mm. inside diameter.

15 Petri double dishes of about 8 or 9 cm. in diameter and from 1 to 1.5 cm. deep.

6 Florence flasks, Bohemian glass, 1000 c.c. capacity.

6 Florence flasks, Bohemian glass, 500 c.c. capacity.

12 Erlenmeyer flasks, Bohemian glass, 100 c.c. capacity.

1 graduated measuring cylinder, 1000 c.c. capacity.

1 graduated measuring cylinder, 100 c.c. capacity.

25 bottles, 125 c.c. capacity, narrow necks, with ground glass stoppers.

25 bottles, 125 c.c. capacity, wide mouths, with ground glass stoppers.

1 anatomical or preserving jar, with tightly fitting cover, of about 4 litres capacity, for collecting blood-serum.

2 battery jars of about 2 litres capacity, provided with loosely fitting, weighted, wire-net covers, for mice.

10 feet of soft glass tubing, 2 or 3 mm. inside diameter.

20 feet of soft glass tubing, 4 mm. inside diameter.

6 glass rods, 18 to 20 cm. long and 3 or 4 mm. in diameter.

6 pipettes of 1 c.c. each, divided into tenths.

2 pipettes of 10 c.c. each, divided into cubic centimetres and fractions.

1 burette of 50 c.c. capacity, divided into cubic centimetres and fractions.

1 separating funnel of 750 c.c. capacity, for filling tubes.

2 glass funnels, best quality, about 15 cm. in diameter.

2 glass funnels, best quality, about 8 cm. in diameter.

2 glass funnels, best quality, about 4 or 5 cm. in diameter.

6 ordinary water tumblers for holding test-tubes.

1 ruled plate for counting colonies.

1 gas generator, 600 c.c. capacity, pattern of Kipp or v. Wartha.

BURNERS, TUBING, ETC.

2 Bunsen burners, single flame.

1 Rose burner.

1 Koch safety burner, single flame.

6 feet of white rubber gas-tubing.

12 feet of pure, red rubber tubing of 5 to 6 mm. inside diameter.

1 thermo regulator, pattern of L. Meyer or Reichert.

2 thermometers, graduated in degrees Centigrade registering from 0° to 100°, graduated on the stem.

1 thermometer graduated in tenths and registering from 0° to 50° C.

1 thermometer registering to 200° C.

INSTRUMENTS, ETC.

1 microtome, pattern of Schanze, with knife.

1 razor strop.

6 cheap quality scalpels, assorted sizes.

2 pair heavy dissecting forceps.

1 pair medium-size straight scissors.

1 pair small-size straight scissors.

1 hypodermatic syringe that will stand steam sterilization.

2 teasing needles.

1 pair long-handled crucible tongs for holding mice.

1 wire mouse-holder.

2 small pine boards on which to tack animals for autopsy.

2 covered stone jars for disinfectants and for receiving infected materials.

INCUBATORS AND STERILIZERS.

1 incubator, simple square form, either entirely of copper or of galvanized iron with copper bottom.

1 medium-size hot-air sterilizer with double walls, asbestos jacket, and movable false bottom of copper plates.

1 medium size steam sterilizer; either the pattern of Koch or that known as the Arnold steam sterilizer preferably the latter.

MISCELLANEOUS.

- 1 pair of balances, capacity 1 kilogramme ; accurate to 0.2 gramme.
- 1 set of cork borers.
- 1 hand-lens.
- 1 wooden filter-stand.
- 2 iron stands with rings and clamps.
- 3 round, galvanized iron wire baskets to fit loosely into steam sterilizer.
- 3 square, galvanized iron wire baskets to fit loosely into hot-air sterilizer.
- 1 sheet-iron box for sterilizing pipettes, etc.
- 1 covered agate-ware saucepan, 1200 c.c. capacity.
- 2 iron tripods.
- 1 yard of moderately heavy wire gauze.
- 2 test-tube racks, each holding 24 tubes, 12 in a row.
- 1 constant-level, cast-iron water-bath.
- 2 potato knives.
- 2 test-tube brushes with reed handles.
- Cotton batting.
- Copper wire, wire-nippers.
- Round and triangular files.
- Labels.
- Towels and sponges.

INDEX.

- ABSCESSES**, microscopic study
 of military, 223-225
Aërobic bacteria, 33
Aërobioscope, 438
Agar-agar, 80-83
 clarification of, 81, 82
 filtration of, 82
 peculiarities of, 71, 72
Air, bacteriological analysis of,
 436-441
 methods used in, 436-441
 method of Petri, 437
 of Sedgwick, 438
Anaërobic bacteria, methods of
 cultivating, 174-180
 method of Buchner, 176
 Esmarch, 179
 Fränkel, 176-179
 Hesse, 174, 175
 Kitasato and Weil, 179
 Koch, 174
 Liborius, 175
Aniline dyes as differential aids,
 170
Animals, fluctuations in weight
 and temperature, 197-203
 inoculation of, 185-196
 intra-ocular, 195-196
 intra-peritoneal and
 pleural, 193-195
 intra-vascular, 188-193
 subcutaneous, 185-188
 observation of, after inocula-
 tion, 196
 post-mortem examination of,
 204-208
 cultures from tissues at,
 206, 207
 disinfection of imple-
 ments after, 208
 disposal of remains, 208
 external inspection at,
 204
Animals, post-mortem examina-
 tion of, the incision
 through the skin, 204
 opening the cavities,
 205, 206
 position of animal, 204
 precautions during, 204-
 206
Anthrax, 357-369
 bacillus of, 357-365
 biology of, 358-365
 experiments with, 365-
 369
 location of, in tissues,
 363, 364
 morphology of, 357, 358
 results of inoculations
 with, 363-365
 spore formation in, 358-
 360
 staining of, 362, 363
 susceptibility of animals
 to, 365
 nature of, 357
Antiseptics, 67, 449, 450
 experiments with, 451, 452,
 453
 method of testing, 449, 450
Apparatus for air analysis, Petri's,
 437
 Sedgwick's, 438
 for counting colonies, 434, 435
 Esmarch's, 435
 Wolffhügel's, 434
 needed in beginner's labora-
 tory, 457-462
- BACILLI**, 38
 differentiation from spores, 40
 flagella
 in

- Bacilli**, motility of, 45
multiplication of, 42-43
spore formation in, 38, 39
- Bacillus anthracis**, 357-365
coli communis, 304-312
"comma," 313-324
diphtheria, 279-294
Finkler-Prior, 340-345
lepre, 265, 266
mallei, 271-274
Neapolitanus, 304-312
nitrifying, 371
oedematis maligni, 383
of smegma, 265, 266
of symptomatic anthrax, 388
of syphilis, 265, 266
pyocyaneus, 232-236
subtilis, 215
tetani, 376
tuberculosis, 259-264
typhi abdominalis, 295-304
- Bacteria**, anaerobic species, 33,
174-180
capsule surrounding, 136
classification of, morphological, 36
constant characteristics of, 39
definition of, 27
discovery of, 13-15
examination of, on cover-slips, 162, 163
flagellated forms, 45, 46
isolation of, in pure culture, 68
principles involved, 68-71
microscopic examination of, 160-165
morphology of, 36-40
motility of, 45, 46
multiplication of, 36-45
nutrition of, 30-35
points to be observed in describing, 182-184
reactions produced by growing, 169
relation to temperature, 34, 35
results of their growth, 29, 30
role in Nature, 27-30
spore formation in, 42-44
staining reactions of, 171
- Bacteria**, systematic study of, 159
- Bacteriology**, application of the methods of, 209
- Bacterium coli commune**, 304-312
cultural peculiarities of, 306-309
differentiation from *b. typhi abdominalis*, 309
morphology of, 306
results of inoculation with, 309-312
where found, 304, 305
- Behring and Kitasato**, work on immunity, 409
- Billroth**, 24
- Birch-Hirschfeld**, 22
- Black leg** (*see* Symptomatic anthrax).
- Blood-serum**, as culture medium, 86-92
collection of, by Nuttall's method, 90-92
germicidal properties of, 404
active principles to which are due the, 408, 409
earlier observations on, 405-407
Löffler's mixture, 96
preparation of, 86-88
preservation of, 90
solidification of, 89, 90
sterilization of, 88
- Bolton's method** for the preparation of potatoes, 85
- Booker's modification** of Esmarch method, 108, 109
- Bonnet**, 20
- Bottles** for staining solutions, 131
- Bouillon**, 73-76
neutralization of, 73-75
- Bread** and potatoes, exposed to air, 209
- Brooding oven**, 111-113
- Brownian motion**, 165
- Bulb** for water samples, 428
- Burdon-Sanderson**, 25
- Burner**, Koch's safety, 113
rose or crown, 59

CHLOROPHYLL, 27

- Cholera Asiatica, diagnosis of, by bacteriological means, 322, 334-339
 - method of Schottelius, 322
 - of Koch, 334-339
- Cholerae Asiaticae, spirillum, 313
 - characteristics of, 314-324
 - biological, 315-324
 - morphological, 314
 - experiments upon animals with, 324-327
 - general considerations upon, 327-334
 - behavior in butter, 332
 - in milk, 331
 - in soil, 330
 - destiny in the dead body, 330-333
 - effect of drying, 332, 333
 - existence outside the body, 328
 - life in water, 328, 329
 - location in the body, 327
 - relation to gases, 333
 - to other bacteria, 332
 - to putrefaction, 330, 331, 333
 - to sunlight, 330
 - poison produced by, 323
- Cohn, 20, 21
- Colon bacillus (*see* *Bacterium coli commune*).
- Colonies, counting of, 433
 - study of, 119-121
- Comma bacillus (*see* *Cholera Asiatica*).
- Cooling stage and levelling tripod, 104
- Cover-slips, cleaning of, 125
 - impression preparations with, 129
 - preparation of, for microscopic examination, 126-129
- Cultures, gelatin, 123, 168, 169
 - hanging drop, 164-168
 - potato, 169
 - pure, 121
 - reactions of, 169, 170
 - stab and smear, 121-123

DECOLORIZING solutions, 143

- Decomposition, 27-29, 370, 371
- Diphtheria, bacillus of, 279-294
 - cultural peculiarities of, 283-287
 - location in the tissues, 289
 - method of obtaining, 279-281
 - modification in virulence, 291-293
 - morphology of, 281-283
 - pathogenesis of, 287-291
 - poison produced by, 291
- Diplococci, 38
- Disinfectants—
 - animals as test objects in experiments with, 449, 450
 - experiments upon, 451-454
 - methods of testing, 443-450
 - precautions to be taken in testing, 445-449
 - use of, in the laboratory, 65, 66
- Disinfection, general remarks upon, 47
 - influence of temperature upon, 63
 - inorganic salts in, 63-65
 - in the laboratory, 65
 - modus operandi* of, 62
 - reliable agents for purposes of, 66
 - selection of agent to be used in, 61
- Dunham's solution, 93

ERYSIPELAS, 230

- Esmarch's tubes, 107
 - Booker's method of rolling, 108, 109
 - of agar-agar, 109
- Exposure and contact experiments, 211

FACULTATIVE, use of the term, 27, 33

- Fermentation, 171-174
 - gases resulting from, 174
 - particles, 174

- Fermentation-tube, 172
 Filters, method of folding, 77, 78
 Finkler-Prior bacillus, 340-345
 Flagella, staining of, 139-142
 Flagellated organisms, 45
 Funnel for filling aërobioscope, 440
 test-tubes, 99
 for filtering cultures, 447
- GAS-PRESSURE** regulator, 117
 Gelatin, 76-80
 cultures in, 168
 their characteristics, 168, 169
 Glanders, pathological manifestations of, 269-271
 bacillus of, 271-274
 inoculation with, 274
 staining of, in tissues, 275-277
 diagnosis of, by use of mallein, 277
 by method of Strauss, 277
 susceptibility of animals to, 273, 274
 Gonococcus, 219
 Gonorrhœa, pus from, 219
 Green-pus bacillus, 232
 Guarnieri's agar-gelatin, 96
- HALSTED**, 194 and 222
 Hanging-drop preparations, 163-165
 Henle, 17
 Hoffmann, 19
 Hydrogen, test for purity of, 178
 Hypodermatic syringes and needles, 190-192
- IMBEDDING** of tissues, 147, 148
 Immunity, 401-417
 acquired, 401
 conclusions concerning, 416, 417
- Immunity, hypotheses in explanation of, 401-415
 exhaustion, 403
 of Buchner, 410
 value of, 415
 of Metchnikoff, 403, 404
 criticism of, 404, 405
 retention, 401
 natural, 401
 studies upon the blood in relation to, 404-410
 work of Behring and Kitasato on, 409
 of G. and F. Klemperer on, 412
 Incubators, 111-113
 Indol, production of, by bacteria, 180
 tests for, 181, 182
 Infection, 395-400
 chemical nature of, 399
 conclusions concerning, 400
 modus operandi of, 398, 399
 poisons present in certain forms of, 400
 Inoculation of animals, 185-196
 intra-ocular, 195, 196
 intra-peritoneal and pleural, 193-195
 intra-vascular, 188-193
 subcutaneous, 185-188
- KLEBS**, 22, 23
 Klemperer, F. and G., their work on pneumonia, 412
 Koch, 25, 26, 55, 68, 73, 106, 113, 135, 210, 246, 259, 313, 325, 332, 335, 337, 339, 345, 383, 384
- LACTOSE LITMUS** agar-agar
 or gelatin, 95
 Leeuwenhoek's discoveries, 13-15
 Lens for counting colonies, 434
 Levelling tripod, 103
 Lepra bacillus, staining peculiarities of, 265, 266
 Litmus-milk, 92
 Löffler's blood-serum, 96
 stain for flagella, 139

- MALIGNANT** œdema, bacillus
 of, 383-388
 biology of, 385, 386
 morphology of, 383-385
 pathogenesis of, 386-388
 susceptibility of animals to, 386
- Mallein, 277
- Meat infusion, 96
- Media, 73-96
 agar-agar, 80-83
 filtration of, 82
 blood-serum, 86-92
 Löffler's mixture, 96
 Nuttall's method, 90
 bouillon, 73-76
 neutralization of, 73-75
 Dunham's peptone solution, 93
 gelatin, 76-80
 Guarnieri's agar gelatin, 96
 lactose-litmus agar or gelatin, 95
 litmus-milk, 92
 meat infusion, 96
 milk, 92
 milk-agar, 93
 peptone-rosolic-acid solution, 94
 potatoes, 83-86
 in test-tubes, 85
- Micrococci, 36
 mode of development, 41, 42
- Micrococcus lanceolatus, 240-245
 irregularities in development of, 244
 morphological peculiarities of, 241, 242
 results of inoculation with, 244, 245
 staining of, 244
 variations in virulence, 244
 where found, 242
- Micrococcus tetragenus, 240, 245-249
 susceptibilities of animals to, 248
 where found, 246
- Microscope, component parts of, 160-162
- Microtome, 146
- Milk, 92
 -agar, 93
- Mouse-holder, 187
- NAEGELI**, 31
 Needham, 18
- Nitrification, 371
- Nitrifying bacteria, 371-375
 methods of cultivating, 373-375
 peculiarities of, 372, 373
- Nitrites, 182
- Nitro-monas, 372
- Normal solution, 176
- Nuttall, 90, 135, 207, 404
- OIL-IMMERSION** system, steps in using, 162
- Ozanam, 17
- PARASITES**, 27
 Pasteur, 19, 25, 33, 383, 401, 403
- Peptone solution, 93
 with rosolic acid, 94
 test for purity of, 93, 94
- Phagocytosis, 404
- Plates, 68-72, 101-106
 apparatus used in making, 102-106
 Koch's fundamental observation, 68-71
 principles involved, 68-71
 materials used, 71, 72
- Petri, 106
 technique of making, 101-106
- Platinum needles and loops, 102
- Plenciz, Marcus Antonius, teachings of, 16
- Post-mortem examination of animals, 204-208
 cultures from the tissues at, 206, 207
 Nuttall's agar for making disinfectants

- Post-mortem examination of animals, precautions necessary at, 204-206
 preparation of cover-slips at, 207
 preservation of tissues, 207
 Postulates to be fulfilled, 259
 Potatoes, characteristics of cultures on, 169
 preparation of, 83-86
 Bolton's method in test-tubes, 85
 Pure cultures, 121
 Pyocyanus, bacillus, 232-236
 chameleon phenomenon of, 235
 pathogenic properties of, 235, 236
 protective inoculations with, 236
- Q**UARTER evil or quarter ill (*see* Symptomatic anthrax).
- R**ECKLINGHAUSEN, 22, 23
 Regulator, gas-pressure, 117, 118
 thermo-, 114-117
 Rindfleisch, 22
 Roux and Yersin, 292
- S**APROPHYTES, definition, 27
 Sarcina, 38
 mode of development, 42
 Schottelius, method of examining cholera evacuations, 322
 Schröder and Dusch, 19
 Schulze, 19
 Schwann, 19
 Section-cutting, 145
 Septicæmia, 239, 395, 398
 micrococcus tetragenus, 245-248
 sputum, 239-245
 Skin disinfection experiments, 454, 455
 Smear cultures, 121, 123
 Smegma bacillus, staining peculiarities of, 265, 266
- Soil, bacteriological analysis of, 442
 organisms present in, 372-375
 phenomena in operation in, 370-372
 Spallanzani, demonstrations of, 18
 Spirilla, 41
 Spirillum cholerae Asiaticæ, 313
 of Deneke, 345-349
 biology, 346-348
 morphology, 345, 346
 pathogenesis, 348
 of Finkler-Prior (*see* Vibrio proteus).
 Metchnikovi (*see* Vibrio Metchnikovi).
 of Miller, 349-352
 biology, 349-352
 morphology, 349
 pathogenesis, 352
 tyrogenum (*see* Spirillum of Deneke).
 undula, 45
 Spores, formation of, 166
 method of studying, 166-168
 mode of development, 43, 44
 staining of, 137, 138
 Sputum, tubercular, 237
 microscopic examination of, 237-239
 pathogenic properties of, 239
 septicæmias, 239-248
 tuberculosis 249-264
 Stab cultures, 121-123
 Staining, methods and solutions employed, 124-158
 acetic acid, 136
 Gabbett's, 135
 general remarks upon, 142
 Gram's, 136
 Gray's, 155
 Koch-Ehrlich's, 132
 Kühne's, 153
 Löffler's alkaline methylene-blue, 132
 staining of flagella, 139
 Moeller's, 138
 ordinary solutions used in, 129-131
 bottles for holding, 131

- Staining, Weigert's method, 154
 Ziehl-Neelsen's carbol-fuchsin, 182
- Staphylococci, 36
- Staphylococcus pyogenes albus, 226
- aureus, 221
- cultural peculiarities, 219-221
- pathogenic properties, 221-223
- where to be expected, 221
- citreus, 226
- Sterilization, 47-60
- chemical, 60-67
- fractional or intermittent, 52, 53
- by heat, 49-60
- principles involved, 49-55
- by hot air, 59
- apparatus used, 59
- by steam, 50-55
- apparatus used, 55-58
- under pressure, 54
- experiments, 213-217
- with hot air, 216, 217
- with steam, 213-216
- Sternberg, 242 and 355
- Streptococci, 37
- Streptococcus pyogenes, 226
- cultural peculiarities of, 227-229
- effects of inoculations with, 230
- microscopic appearance of, 226
- where to be expected, 230
- Suppuration, 218, 230-232
- bacteria common to, 218, 219, 226
- less common causes of, 231, 232
- general remarks upon, 230-232
- microscopic appearance of pus, 218
- Symptomatic anthrax, 388, 389
- bacillus of, 388-389
- biol.
- Symptomatic anthrax, bacillus of, differentiation from bacillus of malignant oedema, 393, 394
- morphology of, 389
- pathogenesis of, 392, 393
- susceptibility of animals to, 393
- Syphilis, bacillus of, staining peculiarities of, 265, 266
- TEST-TUBES, cleaner for, 97
- cleaning of, 98
- filling with media, 98, 99
- apparatus used in, 99
- plugging with cotton, 98
- position after filling, 100
- sterilization of, 98
- after filling, 99, 100
- Tetanus, bacillus of, 376-383
- biology of, 378-380
- method of obtaining, 376-378
- morphology of, 378
- pathogenesis, 380-382
- poison produced by, 382, 383
- Tetrads, 38
- Thermo-regulator, 114-117
- Thermostat, 111-113
- Tissues—
- cultures from, at autopsies, 206, 207
- Nuttall's spear for making, 207
- imbedding of, 147, 148
- preservation of, for microscopic examination, 145, 207
- section-cutting, 145
- staining of bacteria in, 148-151
- steps in the process of, 150
- special methods of—
- dahlia method of, 152
- dry method of, 155
- Ehrlich's, 155
- Gram's, 151
- Gray's, 155

- Tissues, staining bacteria in, special methods —
 Kühne's, 153
 Weigert's, 154
 Ziehl-Neelsen's, 155
- Toxæmia, 397, 398
- Tripod for levelling plates, 103
- Tuberculin, 267
- Tuberculosis, 249-264
 cavity formation in, 253, 254
 diffuse caseation of, 252, 253
 encapsulation of tubercular foci, 254
 location of the bacilli in, 257-259
 manifestations of, 249-255
 miliary tubercles, histological structure of, 251, 252
 modes of infection, 255-257
 primary infection, 255
 sputum in 237
 inoculation of animals with, 239
 microscopic appearance of, when stained, 237, 238
 staining of, 133-136
 susceptibility of animals to, 267, 268
- Tuberculosis, bacillus, 259-264
 cultivation of, from tissues, 259-261
 appearance of cultures, 261-263
 methods of staining, 133-136, 155-158
 dry method, 155
 Gabbett's 135
 Gray's, 155
 Koch-Ehrlich, 132, 155
 Nuttall's modification of, 135
 Ziehl-Neelsen method, 132, 155
 microscopic appearance of, 263, 264
 organisms that simulate it, 264
 differential diagnosis of, 265-267
 staining in tissues, 155-158
- Tuberculosis, bacillus, staining peculiarities of, 263, 264
- Tyndall, 20
- Typhoid fever, bacillus of, 295-304
 biology of, 296-298
 constant properties of, 303
 differentiation from bacillus coli commune, 309
 difficulty in identifying, 302
 experiments with, 304
 inoculations with, 300
 induced susceptibility to, 300, 301
 location in the tissues, 299
 morphology of, 295
 water as a carrier of, 418, 421, 423
 where to obtain the, 303
- VIBRIO** Metchnikovi, 352-356
 biology of, 353-355
 morphology of, 352
 pathogenesis of, 355, 356
 proteus, 340-345
 characteristics of, 340-344
 biological, 341-344
 morphological, 340, 341
 pathogenic properties of, 344, 345
 relation to cholera nostras, 340, 345
- WATER**, general observations upon, 418-424
 qualitative bacteriological analysis of, 424
 precautions in obtaining sample for, 424, 425
 preliminary steps in, 425
 quantitative bacteriological analysis of, 427
 counting of colonies in, 433-436
 apparatus for, 433-435

- Water, quantitative bacterial
 analysis of, dilution of
 sample in, 431
 obtaining sample for,
 428-430
 preliminary tests, 430
 selection of culture me-
 dium, 431, 432
 source of error, 436
 relation to epidemics, 418,
 419
 typhoid bacilli in, 420-422
- Water, value of bacteriological
 examinations of, 421,
 422
 of chemical examina-
 tions of, 422, 423
- Welch, 231, 240, 243
- Wound infection, studies upon,
 21-26
- Z**ÖÖGLÆA, 40



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